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STUDIES OF UNIVERSITY PROBLEMS

The University of Minnesota has just published a bulletin edited by President Coffman, which is one of the few examples in existence of a careful, scientific study of the outlook of a university for future growth. A like study was made some years ago by President Hughes of Miami University and showed, as does this, that there are large problems ahead for the state university and for the contributing high schools.

A number of paragraphs from the summary of the Minnesota bulletin will be of interest to high-school officers, as well as to those who have to provide for Freshmen in college. We quote, therefore, at length from the bulletin.

A study of the several classes of secondary schools in Minnesota as to their number, enrollment, and, in some instances, their numbers of graduates, shows the state high school to be easily the dominating institution of this grade. There is no evidence that it will not continue to be so.

Computation of the proportion of the population attending public secondary schools shows that secondary education is being rapidly popularized—more rapidly in Minnesota than in the United States as a whole.

The annual number of graduates of the state high school has reached 7,000. If the forces which have been influential in bringing the number of

graduates to this annual total continue to operate during the next twenty years as they have in the past—and whether they will or will not no one can prophesy—there will be approximately 14,000 or 15,000 graduates in 1930 and 20,000 or thereabouts in 1940.

The state high school is also the predominant source of university Freshmen. For instance, of the 1,379 entering Freshmen of 1916-17, of whom 247 came from secondary schools outside the state, 989, or 71.8 per cent, were graduates of the state high schools of Minnesota. These graduates of state high schools constituted 87.4 per cent, or almost nine-tenths, of all those entering from within the state of Minnesota.

Although the number of Freshmen in the university shows a rapid increase, it appears that secondary education is being popularized much more rapidly than is higher education. A diminishing proportion of high-school graduates enter the university. The decrease was more rapid during the earlier than during the later portions of the thirty-year period for which facts are available. It seems not unlikely that during the next ten or twenty years this proportion will settle to somewhere between 20 and 25 per cent of the number of those graduated from the high schools.

A consideration of the relationships of the percentage just named with the probable number of graduates of state high schools in 1930 and again in 1940 as previously prophesied, leads to the prediction that the numbers of university Freshmen in those years may be, respectively, 3,500 and 4,500. This prediction is made on the assumption—not a very tenable one at best—that the forces which brought the number of Freshmen up to the proportion of 1916-17 will continue to be consistently operative. It has the merit, however, of being to some extent a conservative prophecy, since it does not leave out of account the decline in the proportion of high-school graduates who enter the university.

The bulletin quoted ought to be studied, not only because of the facts which it presents, but also because it gives hopeful promise that the scientific study of education is finally to become a part of the administration of universities. Following the history of science in general and beginning with the remote, universities have been scientific on every subject in the world except their own administration. The probable size of the Freshman class has been in all higher institutions a matter of interested speculation, but not of study. The preparations in state universities from year to year for the reception of this class have been often inadequate because growth has been unforeseen.

The Minnesota study makes it certain that Freshmen are on the increase. It opens several interesting questions of the relation of higher education to secondary education, and it points to the

necessity of a canvass in a systematic way by state authorities of future policies and probabilities.

PROVISION FOR STUDY OF UNIVERSITY PROBLEMS AT KANSAS

That other institutions are beginning to realize the importance of making such studies as the one just described appears from the comments made by the new chancellor of the University of Kansas in announcing the appointment of Dean Kelly as research professor of university administration. Get the full

The following is quoted from the *Lawrence Daily Journal-World*:

Chancellor E. H. Lindley in announcing the appointment said: "The creation of the position to which Dean Kelly has been called has been under consideration for some time. Among those best acquainted with higher education it is recognized that the rapid development of state universities, due to the rising level of general education and to a demand for new lines of service to the public, has given rise to serious problems of internal organization and of increasing cost of maintenance. These problems can no longer be solved by the cursory study of busy executives. They demand systematic and thorough-going investigation by men trained for such inquiry. These studies while concerned in part with cost of service and with business efficiency are in essential respects unlike those obtaining in industrial establishments. Here the output depends upon the most effective adjustment of human relations, and studies of administration of a university have as their chief aim the securing of maximal educational values from the human resources available. Such studies demand scholars trained in the spirit and aims of higher education as well as in the technique of general educational research.

"Dean Kelly will have opportunity to render in this new relationship a most valuable service to the University of Kansas and we trust to other institutions of similar character as well as to continue his influence in the upbuilding of the entire system of public education of the state. The duties of the new deanship will be twofold:

"1. As already indicated, there will be investigations of the facts, methods, and principles of university administration. Dean Kelly will therefore be a counsellor of the chancellor and of all other officers of administration in the university.

"2. There will be certain administrative duties assigned by the chancellor, which duties are, however, not designed to supersede the essential administrative relations now existing between the chancellor and the deans and directors of divisions of the university. There is simply added to the personnel a most important agency for the improvement of the administrative efficiency of the university, and the position is dignified with the title which properly belongs to it."



GERMAN ENLARGEMENT OF POPULAR EDUCATION

It was assumed by many Americans that with the return of the German soldiers to their homes there would be a general demand for popular education, and that this demand would be granted. The German habit of thought is, however, so different from the American that this expectation has proved to be without foundation. The Germans have set up a select school for gifted pupils and have said once more to the great mass, "You must continue to be hewers of wood and drawers of water."

A brief statement of this project was given by Mr. Kandel in a report issued by the Bureau of Education. A recent issue of *School Life* gives a detailed account of the matter by P. H. Pearson. We quote some paragraphs from Mr. Pearson's article. The American reader will wonder how a newly established republic is to be satisfied with this sop to the populace, especially when it is understood that the ordinary higher schools continue to be exclusively resorts for the upper classes of society as they were in the days of the empire.

The quotation is as follows:

In the autumn of 1917 Dr. Reimann prevailed on the city authorities [of Berlin] to establish this new type of *Gymnasium* and *Realschule* together with corresponding schools for girls.

Admission of pupils to these schools is not granted upon the application of the parents in the usual way but upon the recommendation of a municipal board of examiners and approved by the respective school superintendents. During the final year of the required attendance at the folk school, pupils are selected by their teachers in conference with the rector as candidates for promotion. In this preliminary sifting a number of them are expected to drop out, but they lose no time, for they will finish their obligatory period in the usual way.

Those who pass the probationary year in a satisfactory manner will be admitted to an examination which will further reduce the number of those finally promoted. The form of this examination has not been definitely determined, and it is still under discussion by teachers and psychologists. These schools will follow the closing year of the folk school, but the final selection of pupils will not be made until after two years, during which period the gifts and inclinations of the pupils are to be carefully observed. After instruction in a common course for these two years, the pupils are to be offered a choice between two lines for their further studies, the classical courses of the *Gymnasium* and the modern courses of the *real Gymnasium*.

Though a tuition fee of 140 marks is to be charged, a part of the plan is to let no consideration of expense prevent deserving pupils from having the advantages the schools offer. For this reason a large number of free scholarships and also stipends to the value of 300 marks are available.

In view of the expected objection that this class of institutions would foster an educated proletariat, it was proposed to avoid such results, not by closing the doors of the university against the children of the poor, but by a systematic exclusion of poor and rich pupils alike if they lack the necessary gifts. The *Realschule* division meets the needs of pupils gifted in practical lines. This school is, moreover, to take the place of institutions preparing for the training seminaries, schools that have been criticized as forcing pupils into a certain calling too early instead of keeping the road open as long as possible for those still young in years.

The first *Gymnasium* of this type was calculated to accommodate an annual inflow of 90 pupils, or 1½ per cent of the 6,000 pupils that annually reach the highest class in the Berlin folk schools. Thus far the intelligence tests determining their selection show that this is approximately the proportion that may be expected to attain the classification of *Höchstbegabten*. The manner of selecting this first contingent was regarded as experimental and likely to be modified. Each of the Berlin folk schools was requested to pick out a few of its best pupils as candidates of the *Begabten* opportunities. This primary sifting brought out 300, from which the final group was chosen by means of a series of psychological tests.

The promotion of gifted pupils has been criticized as being an arrangement in the interest of bookish intellectualism, and it is said that it takes little account of those gifted in technical and aesthetic pursuits. In a session of the German committee of education, Dr. Reimann reported that provisions for those also had been made, and that already in March, 1918, the first examination of such had been held. This examination comprised boys and girls from the folk schools who had distinguished themselves, but had showed no exceptional talent in the purely intellectual branches. The examination was conducted by a committee consisting of specialists in art, representatives from the school boards of the city, and directors from the city vocational and continuation schools. The examiners based their decisions in part on the former work of the pupils and in part on what they produced during examinations. The examinations continued for three days with drawing from nature, memory, and imagination, two hours a day being given to each subject. Among 256 boys examined 18 were found excellent (*hochbefähigt*); of these, 9 were from thirteen to fourteen years; the other 9 were from fifteen and one-half to seventeen. Among the 130 girls examined only 7 were found excellent; 5 of them were younger than fourteen years and 2 were between fifteen and seventeen.

The city school boards judged these gifted boys and girls to be fully worthy of special advancement and took immediate steps to place them in training adapted to their gifts. Means for this purpose was provided where it was

lacking. In the second group, namely, those who ranked slightly below excellent, there were 46 boys and 11 girls whom the examiners judged to be well-fitted for training in some industrial vocation with art features. In a further group of 31 boys and 1 girl the judges saw great promise of future achievements in technical art. In the remaining group of 161 boys and 111 girls the art gifts were not sufficiently developed to warrant the choice of work of this character, though, clearly, these too would be able to do good work in selected trades.

These examinations have prepared the way for a comprehensive plan to be carried on at the close of every semester, viz., to conduct three separate examinations of gifted pupils, one of a purely scientific character, one technical, and one artistic.

THE ARMY SCHOOL

Enlistments in the army have been going on since the close of the war with the promise held out to the men that they shall receive in addition to military training an opportunity to learn a trade and to study some general subjects of the kind taught in academic institutions. Congress has made provision for instruction in the army schools. In addition, there are provided in the camps the quarters in which classes can be held and in which shops can be set up; there is a very unusual equipment for shops easily accessible in the remains of war-time mechanical appliances, tools, and materials.

A central training school for teachers was held at Camp Grant during the summer. To this training school came camp directors and teachers from all of the army schools. Five hundred soldiers went to school and furnished the opportunity for model teaching.

The following extracts from a Rockford paper give some of the facts which were reported in connection with Secretary Baker's visit to the camp:

Secretary of War Newton D. Baker delivered the "commencement" address at the closing of the central summer school of the United States army education and recreation division here today, winding up a summer of normal-school work of nearly 2,000 civilian and commissioned officer instructors, as well as 500 enlisted men and 165 women taking special instruction.

Most of the normal-school men and women have been here since July 1. While the Camp Grant University in Khaki concluded its first term of educational and vocational work in June, the classes have been kept going at top speed, as well as the vocational shops, the experimental farm, and other phases of this great experiment by the army, with the 500 enlisted men, some of whom

have been in training here, others of whom were brought here from various other camp schools to provide a model school for the instruction of the teachers.

The men and women "graduated" here today will return, after short leaves at their homes, to the 231 camps throughout the country and island possessions, where it is expected that upward of 150,000 enlisted men will take the training offered them this winter. Of this number it is expected that fully 2,000 Camp Grant soldiers will avail themselves of the opportunity to learn a trade, practical agriculture, business efficiency, or the bare rudiments of education that transform the illiterate or non-English-speaking into speaking, reading, and writing American soldiers and citizens.

"We have arranged such a course for the enlisted man," said Dr. Mann in speaking of the school's work today, "that upon the conclusion of his term of enlistment he cannot afford to re-enlist."

In this connection it was stated by Major-General George Bell, Jr., the local commander—who has taken an especial interest in the school work—that numerous men have left the first term of the University in Khaki at Camp Grant for jobs paying from 100 to 150 per cent more money than they ever earned in civil life before or ever could earn.

For instance, a man who went through the cooks' and bakers' school now has a \$3,000 job as a chef; tractor experts are being snapped up, as fast as they are turned out, by the Holt Manufacturing Company for jobs, not one of which pays less than \$150 a month. With 150,000 men in school throughout the country in a total army of some 300,000 the annual "turnover" of men will be something like 2,000 a year, according to Major Lentz.

"You can see what this will mean to the country," he said. "When this school idea is going on a firm foundation—this is only the first year for it and it is still formative to some extent—it will be not only turning back to civil life 2,000 men trained to take better jobs than they ever had or could hold before, but turning back trained American citizens. The idea is a military one, too. We found, when selective service was started, that we had not enough trained men and that a very great percentage of all men were illiterate or non-English-speaking. This will correct that from a military standpoint and at the same time benefit the community."

A "show" was put on for Secretary Baker today that was unusual in many respects and, although such a show has been going on at many camps recently in some form or other, it was the secretary's first sight of it. This was an Americanization platoon; sixteen men, of a dozen different nationalities, none of whom could read or write English three or four months ago, several of whom could not speak it.

This platoon, under the command of Sergt. Bud Houchens—born in Kentucky of old American stock—an illiterate a few months ago, included such men as Joe Schmidt, Hungary, who could not speak, read, or write English four months ago; Theotime Paulin, a French Canadian who knew no English and who could not read or write in any language; Mike Prontiker, a Czech who

proudly displays his three-months-old knowledge of English, and Peter Mikelson. A book might be written about Peter. He says he was born in 1902. Personally, I think he was born in 1905. He won't be shaving for several years. He is a Dane, a slight little chap, with the friendliest blue eyes and the warmest smile you ever saw. He tells—all of them make some sort of a speech, telling their own stories—of coming to this country three months ago, ignorant of English, illiterate in all languages, a stowaway. They caught him. He was put on a boat for deportation. He broke a door and walked out. He landed in New York. After days of wandering, too slight to do rough work, too ignorant to do light work, he joined the American army. He can read now, and write; no "X" on the payroll for him and, as he tells it, his voice sort of falling to a whisper now and then, you do not laugh at all.

TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

One of the chief courses in this army school is a course which prepares for a better understanding of the problems of social life. In describing this course one of the members of the staff makes the following statement:

How a man earns his living is secondary. The primary consideration is his *attitude* on social problems, toward the government, law, the home, children, etc. At this time, when radicalism under various names is so prevalent, it is very important that men, soldiers, women, citizens, have sane attitudes toward organized society. When one thinks wrongly, his actions are wrong, because actions are the result of thinking.

The sole purpose of the "Basic Course in Citizenship" is to give the soldiers *sane attitudes*. There are certain recurrent themes, such as "value of team play"; "meaning of work"; "respect for property"; "respect for the home and women"; "faith in evolution in contrast with revolution"; "respect for the rights of others," etc. These and the remainder in the list are emphasized over and over again to the men. Our method is not to fill the students with information, but to use the *problem* method by bringing the soldiers face to face with the facts of their own experience, by arousing interest, challenging attention, and establishing a perplexity. In this course the teacher must not lecture to the soldier, or announce his own conclusions, but by tact, resourcefulness, and patience lead (educate) the soldiers to reach their own conclusions. The means is a series of problems in our modern life. We try to give the men sane attitudes on these problems, and our success has been quite satisfactory.

In the public schools the method is to study history by countries. We take problems and use the history of countries only incidentally to throw light on our problems. For example, the first question the first day is "Why do people work?" We go to that country which offers material in its history best answering the question. The outline of the Basic Course shows the

countries considered. We add some experience from these countries to what the men already know.

Our lesson sheets are short, because we rely largely on the experience of the men under instruction for information. Soldiers are adults, not children; therefore we do not need so many textbooks; the data needed is usually in the classroom in the minds of the men. What we need to do is to organize it for the men. They want a little added information, so that is put into the daily lesson sheet. This is why we had to discard the public-school textbooks; they were for children who had little experience and needed long texts.

We soon discovered that the men did not like the texts for children, so we had to write our own. Each day we wrote a lesson, tried it out on real soldiers at Camp Grant, had a conference of teachers on its effect on the men, and revised and improved it, so the lessons which the Service Bureau will send out next year for us in all the camps and posts will not be theoretical but actually used during the past year on soldiers.

To illustrate, take Lesson VIII. The topic is "Safety and Health." The aim is to teach respect for human life. This is the topic we discussed the day Secretary Baker visited my class at Camp Lee. The teacher asks some questions to arouse interest; the lesson sheet gives additional facts. Some people say the army is a man-killing machine; but the soldier is taught to respect and save life. An army is intended to save life. The other day, when I was driven to the station in an army car in Detroit, we came to a man driving a machine who was seized by a fit. The soldier driving my car stopped his car, ran to the other man, stopped his machine, got him out of the car into a drug-store, and called a doctor before the surrounding civilians could think of what to do. The soldier was trained to save life. The soldiers want facts. Notice the facts in Lesson VIII: In the Civil War on both sides not more than 90,000 men were killed in battle, while in Illinois every year there are 123,000 preventable deaths in industry and on the street. We need to learn respect for human life.

ENGLISH EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION

England began during the war to expand her educational system. Great sums were added to the national budget to extend schools and to open larger educational opportunity to all classes. That the policy inaugurated during the war is to become a permanent part of the national program is evidenced by the following statement with regard to next year's appropriations for schools:

The new estimates of the British Chancellor of the Exchequer covering expenditures of a "normal" year allot £135,000,000 for Great Britain's military expenses and £305,000,000 for running the civil departments of her government.

These estimates, according to the Bankers Trust Company of New York, are in striking contrast to the expenditures for military and civil service in the

normal years preceding the world-war. As late as 1909, during a period of peace, Great Britain spent £59,000,000 on her military establishment and only £49,000,000 on her civil departments, including the expenditures for public education, old-age pensions, and other outlay for the social betterment of her people. The postal service is omitted because its expenditures were offset by income.

In the new estimates £70,000,000 is allotted to education alone, or 40 per cent more than the total cost of British civil departments only ten years ago. The latest estimate for old-age pensions is £28,000,000, and £38,000,000 is put down for the Ministries of Labor and Health, including £17,500,000 for unemployment and health insurance and £15,000,000 as subsidy to promote the erection of much-needed new houses. War pensions and allowances are £120,000,000.

"The explanation of this steady increase in the cost of civil government," says a study of *English Public Finance* by the Bankers Trust Company, "is to be found in the awakening of the civic conscience to the duty of the state to its citizens.

"In 1839 Parliament for the first time voted a small sum for public education. By 1854 the expenditure for this purpose reached £559,000; twenty years later it was more than four times as great. In another twenty years the expenditure for this purpose had again quadrupled, while in 1914 it was over £19,000,000, twice the 1895 amount. To complete the record we may note that this sum has again doubled in the year ended March 31, 1920, and that the budget figure for the current year is £56,000,000."

A COURSE IN PREPARATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL

This is perhaps a somewhat pretentious title with which to introduce a very useful suggestion, but it is hardly an exaggeration. In Alton, Illinois, the high school publishes a book on high-school customs and laws which is used in the eighth grades of that city as a text to be read by all pupils in silent-reading exercises.

The book has five parts. The first is entitled "For the New Student" and tells about the building, about registration, school hours, faculty advisers, and so on. The next part deals with the school curriculum; other sections with departments of instruction, student activities, and school duties and customs.

The eighth-grader who has read through the 119 pages of this book and studied its index, which is very full, will certainly not be lost when he is introduced at the beginning of his next year to the actual building and experiences which are described in this course. The reading material supplied to the eighth grade is one of the incidental advantages of this course. The canons

recognized these days by all good teachers of reading are satisfied by this book, for the matter is closely related to the reader's experience, useful in guiding behavior, and adapted to his interests.

There are a great many typical passages which might be selected from the book. One dealing with tardiness will have to represent the whole book for the purposes of the present note.

It is easy to slip into the habit of being late, and everything possible is done to discourage tardiness in the Roosevelt High School. In spite of the effort, however, there is much more tardiness than there should be. The best way to overcome this fault is for each student to determine that as far as he is personally concerned, no tardy mark shall be credited to him. Recently the student council has taken up the matter and hopes to check tardiness among the various classes.

If a pupil is so careless or so unfortunate as to be tardy, he should go at once to the office and ask for the printed slip to take to the teacher for whose class he is late, stating, also, the cause of his tardiness and when he will bring an excuse from home. If the tardiness is unavoidable he will not be asked to make up time; but if he is tardy through carelessness, he may be asked to remain after school a certain amount of time to cover his tardiness. The amount of time to be made up should be in about the proportion of ten to one for the minutes he is late.

CANADIAN LEGISLATION FOR ADOLESCENTS

The following news item is quoted from the *New York Evening Post*:

The Adolescent School Attendance Act recently passed in Ontario aims to provide the youth of the province with a higher minimum of education than that secured by either Mr. Fisher's English bill or by the various similar enactments of the states of the American Union.

The Ontario act, which was framed by the Hon. and Rev. Dr. Cody when Minister of Education, and approved by his successor, the Hon. R. H. Grant, makes provision, first, for those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, and second, for those between sixteen and eighteen years of age.

After September 1, 1921 (unless, indeed, the Minister should take pity upon the unprepared municipalities that find themselves without sufficient school accommodation and should extend the time for a further six months), the period of compulsory full-time school attendance will be increased to include those of sixteen years of age, instead of ending with the present final limit of fourteen years. Very few exceptions will be allowed to those between fourteen and sixteen, complete immunity being granted only to those unable to attend school because of sickness or other physical infirmity, or to those who have passed the matriculation examination of an approved university or who have completed an equivalent course of study satisfactory to the Department of Education. Partial exemption will be granted to two classes only—first, to those boys and girls whose parents or guardians furnish satisfactory proof that their personal help is needed in some approved form of home employment,

such as farm labor or housework, and, second, to those who are obliged to go to work in order to assist their families financially. Both classes of these partially employed adolescents, however, will be required to attend school for 400 hours, in place of the 1,100 hours of the regular school year.

After September 1, 1923, a minimum school attendance of 320 hours a year will be required of all those in the province between the ages of sixteen and eighteen. Not only will the same exemptions be allowed to those older adolescents as are granted to those between fourteen and sixteen, but a certain special dispensation may also be granted at the discretion of the public-school inspector to those who have already taken a satisfactory full-time course of instruction up to the age of sixteen.

The act further provides that all municipalities of 5,000 and over shall establish part-time courses for the adolescents between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. These courses may be selected from those prescribed for the public schools, high schools, art, industrial, and technical schools, and from the commercial, agricultural, and household science departments in the high schools.

NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PUPILS' OPINIONS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Junior High School, Monmouth, Illinois.—Two hundred and ten junior high-school children were asked the question: "Do you like the junior high-school plan? State the reason for your answer." No time was given for discussion or communication. General reasons named, with typical replies, are as follows:

1. Departmental teaching, named by 150 pupils

- a) Passing from room to room
- b) Different teachers
- c) Rooms for special subjects

I like the junior high plan better because you have different teachers and go from one room to another. If you have some trouble with one teacher you can go to another. If you had to stay in the same room all day, you would not get your lessons as well. But as it is, you can't get tired because you walk to different rooms and get exercise to strengthen you.

2. Better organization—50 pupils

- a) Longer periods for study and recitation
- b) Program for study as well as recitation
- c) Smaller classes
- d) Lessons prepared at school

I like the junior high-school plan better because we have forty-minute recitation periods and our work is more organized. We know just what and when we are to study our various lessons. Going to school at eight-thirty makes a person feel more ready to work.

3. Supervised study—70 pupils

- a) Study hall, reference books, other material
- b) Individual help

4. Broader and richer curriculum—10 pupils

I like the junior high-school plan; the subjects are more interesting; science gives lots more ideas than all the other subjects we used to have. Civics will help you when you get to high school. Cooking, sewing, and manual training for half a day helps more than for part of an afternoon.

5. Better preparation by teachers—130 pupils

The junior high-school teacher has more time to look up what she is going to assign and know whether it is what she wants or not. She also has more time to look up new things and new ways. "Jack of all trades is master of none."

6. Social activities—125 pupils

- a) Assembly periods
- b) Special activities
- c) Wider acquaintance

I think the assembly periods that we have every week are very interesting. They teach us to be able to get up in front of people and not be frightened. I like to go into the assembly room and hear patriotic and other speeches.

7. Better holding power—25 pupils

- a) Prepares for senior high school
- b) Gives equal opportunity to all
- c) Allows pupils to specialize

It gives you a taste of high school. The subjects are better; they are almost like high school. When you go to junior high school it makes you feel that you are more, and you take more interest in your work.

8. Vocational guidance—5 pupils

- a) Prepares for business
- b) More practical education

Lots of children stop school when they finish the eighth grade and the eighth grade used to be a preparation for high school and not preparatory for business as it is now. Now you learn more things that otherwise you would have had to take in high school. If you stop school at the eighth grade you don't go into the world without a practical education.

MYRTLE T. SIMMONS, *Principal*

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

INVESTIGATIONS OF HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECTS

The reorganization of high-school curricula has involved the careful investigation of the content of the course of study. One subject after another has been studied critically for the purpose of determining current practices and needed reforms. This movement has been reflected in a very large way in the scientific studies which have been pursued during the past year by graduate students in the Department of Education.

A survey of English as taught in the junior high schools of the North Central Association was made by Ira H. Welch, A.M. The materials examined in this investigation were the language and grammar textbooks used most frequently. These were analyzed to determine their content and method of attack. Additional data were secured from a questionnaire which was sent to every junior high school in the North Central Association. The study showed that 93 per cent of all pupils are devoting one-fifth or more of their time to the study of English. The tendency is to emphasize minimum-essential and functional phases of the subject wherever grammar is taught. Oral compositions receive more attention than written compositions and are frequently preparatory to written work. The class books and outside reading books which are used conform largely to the list recommended by the Committee on Literature of the North Central Association. It is very interesting to note that 13.25 weeks each year are devoted to literature, 12.13 weeks to composition, and 5.5 weeks to spelling. The growth of libraries is noteworthy in view of the fact that at least 70 per cent of the schools studied have recently reorganized their libraries. It is only through genuine reorganization along this line that high-school children can be supplied with appropriate reading materials.

The reorganization of the teaching of civics and other social subjects has been challenging thoughtful consideration during the

last five years. T. D. Brooks, A.M., recently completed a detailed study of present practice in civics-teaching as indicated by textbooks and other teaching materials. Mr. Brooks analyzed the prefaces, contents, and exercises of ten widely used textbooks, magazine reports of exceptional teaching, and current-event studies issued by three widely used weeklies, for indications of aims and for types of pupil activity which are utilized in realizing various aims. The results of the study are very interesting and suggestive. They also suggest the need of genuine reform in several directions. The dominant aims, as indicated by the proportion of exercises, are: (1) the mastery of text materials; (2) judgment and attitude on civic questions; (3) concreteness and correctness of general discussion through the use of local facts; (4) acquaintance with and the ability to report differing views as given in well-organized forms. Negligible attention is given at the present time to skill in the use of primary sources of facts, official reports, and other references of a similar character, or to training in methods of checking the records of officials. Observations and excursions are for the purpose of motivation rather than for information and skill. The most noticeable omissions revealed by the study were in the field of current events.

Glen W. Warren, A.M., recently analyzed eight textbooks of high-school physics and fourteen manuals to determine the content of current courses in physics. The investigation revealed a striking similarity in the content, arrangement, and method of presentation contained in textbooks. The manuals, on the other hand, differ greatly in all these respects. There is doubtless need of careful and deliberate studies of the purposes of laboratory work and, in addition, there is need of the preparation of manuals or directions for this phase of instruction in physics which will secure more effective results. It is interesting to note that two textbooks and three manuals make special provision for individual differences. This has not been done to any appreciable extent in the older texts and manuals. The persistence of mathematics in physics courses is revealed by the fact that approximately 53 per cent of the questions which are asked require mathematical treatment and 75 per cent of the laboratory exercises involve considerable measurement.

A SUGGESTION FOR MEETING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

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At the outset we shall assume that there is no question of the existence of individual differences among school children. Such an assumption is based on facts shown in all studies on retardation, acceleration, and elimination in the records of progress in all subjects as expressed by teachers' marks, and in all tests, be they intelligence, achievement, or of whatever nature. Hence the assumption may rest as an established fact.

Various plans of caring for pupils in accordance with their native capacities and acquired abilities have been suggested. We shall not endeavor to recount these plans, but will assume that many of them have really contributed to the solution of the problem, and that none of them has more than scratched the surface in dealing with it. Pupils have been, and are being classified in some schools according to ability as determined (1) by teachers' judgment, (2) by cumulative records of earlier progress and indicated interests, (3) by so-called intelligence tests with intelligence quotients determining the classification. This distribution places the better pupils in groups with their equals in capacity and likewise groups the poorer pupils by themselves and the average pupils by themselves. Of the three methods suggested above, we incline, wherever records are available, to the use of cumulative records as the chief determining factor for classifications. Intelligence tests are so often given under conditions that tend to vitiate the results that great care needs to be exercised in using them for determination in the case of a single individual. One adult who had taken the Otis Test twice scored a difference of over one hundred points in the two tests. He had apparently misunderstood the directions in the first test. If such cases happen with trained adults, what is likely to happen in the case of the untrained child? Where

cumulative records are not available, on the other hand, intelligence tests may be utilized. However, a combination of the three possible means—teachers' judgment, cumulative records, and intelligence scores—is far to be preferred to exclusive dependence upon any one of them.

The general matter of classification according to ability is basic for any real attack on the problem of individual differences. We have to handle pupils in classes varying in size from fifteen to fifty. In order to teach all these pupils effectively, there should be grouping according to narrow limits of homogeneity. Plans for individual progress within the group can only be properly supervised when the groups have enough natural ability, sufficient preliminary training, and a sufficiently similar outlook toward progress in the future as to furnish the opportunity for dealing with the same problem intelligently by all of the individual members of the group.

Another method of providing for individual differences widely hailed as an educational panacea is the extensive development of free election among a multifarious array of subjects. Elections are supposed to give every pupil an opportunity to secure subjects which especially appeal to him and are therefore supposed to be especially applicable to his needs. There is no question that earlier schools were far behind the times in curricular matters. On the other hand, the psychology underlying the assumption that pupils tend toward early specialization due to dominant interests is seriously in question. The writer has cumulative records on a large group of pupils which tend to show that early preferences are utterly lacking in permanence in by far the majority of cases. An article covering portions of this material was published in the March, 1919, number of *School and Society*. We would not go back to the earlier narrow curriculum because there is real value in a course of study enriched both as to individual subjects and as to subject-matter. We do seriously question the real contribution that the enriched curriculum as a single factor has made toward the solution of the problem of dealing with individual differences. It has a function to perform when taken in connection with certain other factors, but it is far from caring for the situation in itself.

Much has been done in the past few years toward determining the objectives to be attained by pupils in school. In this connection has developed the idea of maximum and minimum courses of study within the given subjects. No explanation here is necessary as to the meaning of the terms. This represents one of the most progressive movements toward the solution of the problem of caring for the individual so that he can get the most out of his school course and, at the same time, offer the least hindrance to his fellows in their securing a like maximal value. To be specific, modifications within the English course to fit the abilities of students by maximal and minimal requirements within the same general outline are to be preferred to differentiation of English into literature and composition for the academic students as contrasted with pure business English for the commercial students. Each group needs contact with both types of material. Likewise, the poorer students need contact with literature and the better with technical business English; each group needs such contacts in a degree to suit its own peculiar abilities. Further, each individual in each group should have his peculiar needs met. In courses arranged with objectives whose attainment is presupposed to be a matter of degree according to the abilities of the student, but whose main core is the same for all, we have the foundation for the common elements which are essential to the welfare and existence of a democracy, as well as the foundations for the intelligent participation of the individual in that democracy.

School systems are committing themselves to one or the other of the three methods mentioned above, usually to the exclusion of the other two. This is almost inexplicable shortsightedness. The three methods, instead of standing alone, should be united in the same system. Maximum and minimum courses function in their most natural way when they are applied in connection with subjects that really do function for groups of varying ability and of varying outlook on the future, especially when such groups have been scientifically determined by cumulative records and results from intelligence tests. Supervised study becomes an efficient method of procedure when the teacher realizes that she has a group of pupils with a mental caliber of relatively the same level and

therefore supposed to attain a clearly marked degree of efficiency in the subject she is endeavoring to teach them. Under such conditions, the supervised study period may be used for the benefit of all the pupils in giving to each the help he needs, in the way he needs it, on the points on which he needs it, at the time he needs it, and to the extent to which he needs it. Without such arrangement as to classification and degree of attainment, study supervision can be only sporadic; probably it will not be given to the pupils in amounts distributed according to their needs, and will fail to function as an effective means of classroom procedure. In such cases, we find the evidence which enables us to say that many pupils fare better by being allowed to do their own work without the interference of the teacher.

But how can we go about securing these desired conditions? Who can make out courses of study which will be applicable to groups differentiated according to ability? The answer is that such courses of study must be of the developmental type. They must be *growing* courses of study. Small beginnings may be made in any subject by teachers and principal in committees. The simplicity of procedure in elementary types of this kind of work makes one wonder why it has not been more widely used. The remainder of this paper will deal with one or two illustrations of such work.

In a brief on supervised study,¹ the writer said in part:

In developing technique for effectively supervising study, the teacher needs to consider:

I. General supervision for the class as a unit, that the teacher may

A. State for himself, in very definite and specific terms, the ultimate aims and results expected from his course:

1. In order that he may have a yardstick for purposes of measuring:

a)

b) The cumulative progress made in various parts of the course

c) The final acquirements of pupils at the end of the course

2.

3. In order that he may more effectively direct the questioning and thinking of the pupils

II. Specific instruction for individual pupils

A. That each pupil may receive the kind of assistance that he needs

B.

¹ *Midland Schools*, March, 1918.

C. When the need of such individual attention shall be indicated by:

1. Pupil's own questions
2. Pupil's errors as shown in:
 - a) Daily or periodic written work
 - (1) By means of actual tabulation of errors
 - (2) By general ideas relative to errors
 - b) Board work
 - c) Written tests
 - (1) By means of tabulation of errors
 - (2) By general ideas relative to errors

The illustrations below represent special cases of the written test. In observing and tabulating errors of work in algebra, it became very evident to the writer that the "written problems" were the source of greatest difficulty for the majority of pupils. After this discovery he spent considerable time in visiting algebra classes and in attempting to find clues to the difficulty. He observed that in problems involving such purely arithmetical terms as "sum," "product," "quotient," "multiplicand," etc., many of the pupils apparently did not grasp the significance of the words. An attempt was made to find how much of a factor such terms actually constitute in success or failure in algebra. At this point the suggestion came that here was a case in which teachers should be interested in the *individual status* of *every pupil* in the algebra classes. A list of the terms which the writer considered indispensable knowledge for every pupil for his further work in mathematics and for his use in actual life was drawn up and submitted for criticism to the teachers of seventh- and eighth-grade arithmetic and also to the high-school and junior-college teachers of mathematics. By mutual agreement, some of the writer's terms were canceled and a few new terms were added. The final list contained thirty-five terms, arranged by chance distribution in the following order: triangle, proportion, profit, remainder, difference, dividend, subtrahend, fraction, insurance, premium, net proceeds, tax, amount, rate, polygon, square, decimal, mixed number, factor, sum, improper fraction, cube, multiplier, commission, base, quotient, interest, loss, percentage, multiplicand, divisor, complex fraction, ratio, product, trade discount.

These terms were then run off in duplicate copies with plenty of space for the answer after each term. The instructions at the head of the test sheet were: "What do you understand by the following terms? Either tell what you think each one means or illustrate it in a problem." In class the additional direction was given that if anyone wished to answer by drawing a figure he might do so. No time limit was placed on the test. Most pupils took less than fifteen minutes in answering. Objections may and probably should be raised to some of the terms included, but all would agree on many of them. Minor differences of opinion are immaterial for our present purpose.

The data having been collected, the next move was to put them in usable form. A very simple means of aggregating the material was used, and yet one that revealed to teacher, principal, and pupil alike the point of the individual's weakness or failure. Below is shown a sample check sheet. The numbers at the top correspond to the order of the terms given earlier. A perfect score was arbitrarily called "10," a failure "0," a failure to attempt an answer "X," and a doubtful answer "?."

SAMPLE CHECK SHEET—ARITHMETIC VOCABULARY

	PROBLEMS													Total		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	35	0	X	?	
John Anderson.....	10	10	10	0	X	10	?	10	?	0	
John Jones.....	10	?	X	X	X	0	10	10	?	?	0	
John Smith.....	10	10	0	X	X	0	10	10	?	0	

The check sheets revealed both individual and group weaknesses in the command of essential arithmetical terms. Each pupil now had his own needs indicated. He needed to waste no further time with terms on which he had made 10, but did need to pay attention to the others. His first duty was to straighten out all terms concerning which there was a *question mark*; 0's followed and X's came next. The teacher had revealed to her what subjects she needed to teach again as subjects, and what ones might be omitted except for occasional review. Likewise, she had revealed to her the individual needs of every pupil. These tests were given about two months before the end of the year in order

that deficiencies in technical vocabulary might be removed. They will be given again early next year in the ninth-grade mathematics classes in order to discover any serious deficiency still persisting, such as failure to know the terms "sum" and "product." Pupils are much interested in working out their own problems if their individual deficiencies are clearly revealed to them.

Some interesting side lights on the lack of definiteness, even in our adopted textbooks in mathematics, develop from the study. In the same texts, the terms "difference" and "remainder" are synonymous at times and at other times have distinctly varying meanings. "Dividend" stands for two distinct ideas, as does also "base." Common also is an absolute disregard for the technical meaning of "amount." Even the terms "sum" and "product" have become somewhat tangled in certain texts. When mathematics teachers, through such investigations, begin to see that such conditions of indefiniteness exist, the difficulties of individual pupils can be more effectively met.

What is true in mathematics is also true in other subjects, probably to a greater extent. Much of formal grammar has been rightly eliminated from our elementary work, but a minimum of it should be included in the education of every boy and girl at least for corrective and interpretative purposes. When a pupil enters the ninth grade his English teacher assumes that he has a certain amount of information in English and that one part of such information is an exact understanding of certain technical terms. With this idea in mind, we attempted to make out a minimal technical vocabulary list which a ninth-grade teacher might rightly expect the pupil to know. In reality, such teachers have carried on their instruction in this technical vocabulary from time immemorial. The list was made up in the same way as was the arithmetic list. It was similarly given, scored, and used. The list was finally arranged in this order: simple sentence, singular number, past tense, preposition, noun, conjunction, plural number, sentence, relative pronoun, verb, participle, pronoun, modifier, active voice, semicolon, dependent clause, apostrophe, compound sentence, predicate, nominative case, object complement, colon, subjective complement, passive voice, independent clause, adjective, infinitive, adverb,

proper noun, subject, possessive case, complex sentence, period, comma, future tense.

Instructions were: "Explain what you understand by the following terms. You may either give a definition of the terms, or illustrate them in sentences, underlining the part that illustrates the term." Only one comment need be made on the results of this study. Strange as it may seem, there appeared to be more unanimity in the understanding of the English terms, and greater exactness in comprehending the meaning of the English terms than of the mathematical terms. In the course of the investigation, however, we discovered that teachers in the same grades had radically different ideas of the meaning of the terms "participle" and "infinitive."

What has been done in these subjects should be done in every subject, not only as a propaedeutic test, but also as a measure of the grasp of the technical vocabulary in every subject. For example, when the pupil sees that according to newspaper accounts an earthquake has occurred in Los Angeles, he needs to know what the term earthquake signifies. Likewise, when he hears of the probable scarcity of petroleum products, he needs to know the meaning of petroleum. A geometry teacher worked out a list of seventy-five terms that a student who has completed plane geometry should know. Only with the greatest difficulty could this teacher correct and tabulate the papers, because of the eagerness of individual pupils to find out not *how much they made* but *what they had wrong*. It furnished an individually motivated review.

But in our zealotry over these small details, we must not forget that the best opportunities for individual progress come through the three factors of (1) classification according to ability, (2) extended and enriched course of study and curricula, and (3) minimum and maximum courses or requirements in courses. If pupils have been classified according to ability, their records within each class will be largely the same. There will be differences among individuals as to the exact terms with which they are not familiar, but there will be no great variation in the number of subjects or terms each individual needs to straighten out. Furthermore, in the better groups very little time will be required to give the

requisite directions to individuals. On the other hand, much time must be used in dealing with the slower divisions; there will always be actually more to do in those divisions. In a properly organized school, the better divisions will be allowed to progress by taking up new work as soon as difficulties are removed; the classes as groups may be progressing long before every individual has his personal difficulties removed, and each individual may be making up his deficiencies.

A concrete illustration of the difficulty of dealing with such a situation can be seen by comparing the best individual record of the A division in the arithmetic tests, namely, two wrong, one of which was only a questionable wrong, with the best case and the worst case in the C class, which were, respectively, sixteen out of thirty-five wrong and twenty-one out of thirty-five wrong. Similarly, in the A division in English, the best record was none wrong, and the poorest five wrong out of thirty-five, while in the poorest division the best record was eleven out of thirty-five wrong, and the worst twenty-four out of thirty-five wrong.

Apparently, when we arrange our classes according to the alphabetical order, we handicap our teacher and pupils as effectively as if we had hobbled them with ball and chain. In reality the country school with its interminable number of classes is hardly so handicapped because there, due to the multiplicity of varying abilities, everyone expects individual progress. On the contrary, when fifty pupils of nondescript abilities are thrown together in a city seventh grade, individuality must be repressed in order to make the common machinery move.

MEDIEVAL ENGLISH APPRENTICESHIP AS BUSINESS EDUCATION

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If the vital relations of any business were charted, its internal and external activities might be represented as two circles impinging upon one another, with the management on the alert at the point of contact. The internal problems would arise out of the interrelations of the activities of production and distribution and of what we have been calling administration, for lack of a better name. The external problems would have to do, first, with the special public the business is concerned with, its customers, its direct and potential competitors, and the general body of labor from which it draws its workers, executives, salesmen, clerks, and factory operatives. And outside this circle, another, much larger, might be traced to indicate the relations of the business with the individuals making up the special public of the business and the members of its organization. For the attitude even of employees is affected by their social judgment of the business, its methods, and its aims.¹

The point of view expressed in this quotation, when applied to an ancient business curriculum, that of medieval apprenticeship, throws an interesting light on that system of business education. We have done medieval apprenticeship an injustice in conceiving it to be primarily a training in technical skill. Medieval apprenticeship attempted technical training in craft skill, but it also attempted much more. It was the institution relied upon to give candidates for membership in the guilds the ability to conduct a business in a difficult economic and social environment. It was even more. It was the institution relied upon to effect a complete social adjustment for the youths who were to become influential in town life. The support for so sweeping a statement lies largely in observing evidence upon three matters: (1) the relation of an apprentice to the craft guilds, (2) the nature of the master-craftsman's business and social problems, and (3) the direct evidence of apprenticeship as managerial, moral, and social education.

¹ A. W. Shaw, *An Approach to Business Problems* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1916), p. 321.

APPRENTICESHIP AS THE INSTRUMENT OF THE CRAFT GUILDS

Although it did not always remain so, apprenticeship was in its development the instrument of the guilds. This statement is important in view of the fact that apprenticeship later became a matter of statute and is now, in our country, an affair of state legislation. But it is most important to notice this statement because of the implication that since apprenticeship was a guild tool it could be used to conduce to whatever would aid the guilds.

That apprenticeship was a guild institution is shown repeatedly in the ordinances and documents of the old companies. Thus we find the Dyers of Bristol insisting on apprenticeship in that "forasmuch as often before these times divers folk, as well as those who have not been apprentices, servants, or masters of the said mistery, as other folk who are of other misteries, not cunning nor having knowledge in the aforesaid art of dyeing, have taken upon them to dye cloths and wools put in woad as well of good folk of the town as of the country round, which, by reason of illmanagement and lack of knowledge of the said folk, are greatly impaired of their colors."¹

The White Tawyers of London declared "that none who has not been an apprentice and has not finished his time of apprenticeship in the said trade shall be made free of the said trade, unless it be attested by the overseers or by four persons of the said trade that such person is able and sufficiently skilled to be made free of the same."² The ordinances of the Braelers leveled a rule at him that would be a journeyman without good training, legislating "if there be any journeyman in such calling who does not know his trade, let him be ousted therefrom if he will not be apprenticed to learn his said trade."³

That apprenticeship was strictly a guild institution and that it was adapted to various needs is further apparent from the difference in the terms of indenture. Thus the Fullers of Northampton

¹ A. E. Bland, P. A. Brown, and R. H. Tawney, *English Economic History; Select Documents* (London: G. Bell & Sons, Ltd., 1914), pp. 141-42.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 136-38.

³ Henry Thomas Riley, *Memorials of London and London Life in the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Centuries* (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1868), I, 278.

required only four years' apprenticeship, the Weavers six years, while the Lorimers of London held ten years to be the necessary period of training. The Ordinances of the Plumbers of London set forth very clearly the way in which this system of education was molded by the guilds to their own purpose.

In the first place, that no one of the trade of Plumbers shall meddle with works touching said trade within the said city, or take house or apprentices, or other workmen in the same, if he be not made free of the city; and that, by the assent of the best and most skilled men in the said trade, testifying that he knows how well and lawfully to work, and to do his work; and so the said trade may not be scandalized, or the commonalty damaged and deceived, by folks who do not know their trade.

Also—that no one of the said trade shall take an apprentice for less than seven years; and that he shall have him enrolled within the first year, and at the end of his term shall make him take up his freedom, according to the usage of the said city.¹

In 1563, in the great Statute of Apprentices the central government sought definitely to standardize apprenticeship education for guild membership. This act may well be viewed as a stamp of official approval on the efforts of the guilds and an attempt of the state to assure itself of the benefits of guild training. "The most interesting portion of the great statute connected with the craft-gild system is perhaps that which defines the period of apprenticeship, the first general definition of the kind by national legislation. Some recognition of the value of the institution of the apprenticeship in industrial life apparently induced the government to put it on a national basis and to incorporate a clause regarding it in the Statute of Laborers."²

Thus national legislation touching apprenticeship was unknown during the period when the institution was developing and while it was most important. Apprenticeship was the instrument of the guilds, devised by them, and developed by them as a means properly to train novices in the skill, duties, and responsibilities of membership in the brotherhood of the craft. It was the accepted route to a skilled trade; but it was vastly more; it was a carefully arranged initiation into full and intimate participation in the guild

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 321-22.

² Stella Kramer, *English Craft Guilds and the Government* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1905), p. 3.

life. Its educational significance can, then, be indicated only by some examination of the meaning of guild life. Let us first view the guildsman—the master-craftsman—in some of his more strictly business relationships.

THE GUILDSMAN AS A BUSINESS ADMINISTRATOR

The coming of modern business may have brought us large-scale production, machine technique, and the wide market, but it certainly did not introduce a complicated problem for the director of a business. Complexity was already old. The master-guildsman was confronted, if we follow the classification of Mr. Shaw, with a large number of internal problems.¹ He had need to be versatile, indeed, to administer them successfully. Within his shop and store he dealt with his customers if they bought wares or if they brought materials upon which he was to work, as was frequently the case with the bakers. If men sold him raw materials from which he was to fashion articles for trade, as might be the case if he were one of the tapicers who were required by their ordinances to buy "good wool of England or Spain," he might likewise meet them in his own shop.

The master-craftsman was the chief factor in the technical work in his shop. He not only directed the work of his employees, the journeymen, and guided the efforts of the apprentice, but he performed a large part of the work himself. As master, he organized the work of the others and administered questions of wages, discipline, and hours and conditions of work. Even where the broad policies in these matters were laid down by the brotherhood, their administration was in his hands.²

To the degree necessary the guildsman was a capitalist. He furnished the shop and the implements of production. An inventory of the instruments of a brewer of London in 1335 showed the following: "two leaden vessels, one old chest, and one *masshfat* (mash-vat), value 18d; one *rarynfat* (fining-vat), value 6d; one *heyr* (highstand) for tuns, value 12d; three sets of handmills,

¹ A. W. Shaw, *op. cit.*, chap. i.

² "It was no uncommon thing for the wardens to distrain his workshop and his working tools for non-payment of wages or the king's ferme" (Joshua Toulmin Smith, *English Gilds* [London: N. Trubner & Co., 1870], IV, cxxvii).

value 4s; one piece of lead, value 2d; one tun, and one half-tun, value 8d; one *yelfat* (ale-vat), value 18d; 5 *kemelynes* (tubs for brewing), value 10d; one *clensingbecche* (Qy. as to this), value 4d; also, one *alegiste* ("gist," or stand for small casks), value 2d."¹

The master-craftsman was a teacher, charged with the tremendously important duty of teaching others to perform the many duties which he himself faced. He was bound under the clauses of indentures to instruct his apprentices well and fully in all the arts of his trade and he was subject to penalties if he should fail in his duties as an educator. He agreed that he would keep his apprentice "as an apprentice should be, that is to say meat and drink, hose and shoes, linen, woolen, and his craft to be taught him and nothing hid from him thereof." An old indenture reads, "John Gibbs and Agnes, his wife" bind themselves that they "shall teach, train, and inform or cause the aforesaid John Goffe, their apprentice, to be informed in the craft of fishing in the best way they know how."²

In the ways cited, at least, then, the master-craftsman, as a business manager, faced administrative problems of no mean sort. In all of those activities which Shaw lists as location, construction, and equipment of plant, and the material agencies and organization used in operation, the master was an administrator.

THE EXTERNAL PROBLEMS OF THE CRAFTSMAN MANAGER

The "internal problems" of business administration could not be allowed to occupy the entire attention of the guildsman. Even more numerous and perplexing were a set of matters which may be regarded as "external problems."

The craftsman manager directed his business unit in a social environment, and although there was more of propinquity than in the modern situation there was no less of complexity. An analysis of this social environment indicates that there were some three spheres that need consideration. One was the market, the "trade" of the craftsman. The proper treatment of the problems in this field must have taxed then, as it does now, the best thought of the

¹ Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

² A. E. Bland, P. A. Brown, and R. H. Tawney, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

"manager." Second was the guild itself. This brotherhood of business men of a common calling, organized as it was for mutual aid and protection and for eliminating the wastes of competition, brought with it all the responsibilities and problems of associated action. Finally, the guildsman was a citizen and a public officer. Membership in the guild was frequently coincident with citizenship and the guilds were semi-public bodies. They were the recognized devices used by municipality, or central government, or both, for the regulation and control of industry, for "the gild under the master and wardens became a better unit for civic administration than the ward under the alderman."¹

The guild's position in the last respect was complicated by the fact that it existed by virtue of the authority of municipality or crown. The former was by far the more common authority in England and we can be reasonably confident that in reading the ordinances of a guild we are reading legislation that was not out of harmony with the borough's attitude on those matters. The intimate relation between the guild and the town makes it difficult to tell how far the craft exercised powers independent of the borough. Yet there is significance in the fact that rarely do we discover anywhere a set of craft by-laws, or even a few isolated regulations, which do not show signs of municipal indorsement or oversight. When craft guilds needed confirmation of their trade regulations they asked the borough and the community for it. In the leet rolls of the time is strong evidence that guild ordinances out of harmony with governmental authority were amercable. Thus, it was decreed to fine the tanners, "and because they have a gild hurtful to the lord King in buying hides, and because they correct transgressions which ought to be pleaded before the bailiffs (one mark)." Similarly of the cobblers, "because they have a gild contrary to the prohibition of the lord King." Also of the saddlers "because they have a gild hurtful to the lord King (one mark); of the fullers for the same (half a mark)."² The

¹ Charles M. Clode, *The Early History of the Guild of Merchant Taylors of the Fraternity of St. John the Baptist, London, with Notices of the Lives of Some of Its Eminent Members* (London: Harrison & Sons, 1875), I, 55.

² Norwich, England, Courts-leet. *Leet Jurisdiction in the City of Norwich during the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries* (London: B. Quaritch, 1892), pp. 39, 42-43.

dyers of Coventry also "made an unlawful ordinance" with the result that it was ordained by the leet "that the said unlawful and hurtful ordinances made by the said dyers be utterly void, quashed, and annulled."¹

In considering the perplexities of the guildsman in all this, it is well to keep in mind that the demands of the social environment of the business were then, as now, tangled and interlaced. "In actual practice, state, borough, and gild presented frequently the appearance of a three-fold combination of almost equal forces working together for a common end. It is therefore not always easy to consider the gilds apart as distinct organs with their own special purposes and functions." Especially is this obvious when we note that guildsmen themselves were often magistrates, as in 1241 when a member of the mercers' guild became mayor of London and later members of the vintners' company frequently held that office. In the same way in Durham "the twenty-four," two of whom were elected from each of the twelve "misteries" of the town, constituted, with twelve aldermen, the common council; and in York the common council consisted of members chosen from the crafts.²

The not easy task, then, of the master-craftsman in dealing with external relations of his business was to harmonize the social demands of the guild, the city, and perhaps the state with the acquisitive possibilities of the market.

BUSINESS AND SOCIAL CONTROL

Specific illustrations of the clash of business interest with one or more of the agencies of control will show more clearly the difficult position of the master-craftsman and will serve to make more vivid the difficult situation for which the guilds used apprenticeship as a preparation.

One task of the guildsman as a business man was to secure demand for his goods. This led to display of wares and other simple forms of advertising. But here the craftsman met with

¹ Mary Dormer Harris, *Life in An Old English Town* (London: Sonnenschein & Co., Ltd.; New York: Macmillan Co., Ltd., 1898), p. 265.

² Stella Kramer, *op. cit.*, I, 3.

social regulations, and, it should be noted, social regulations for which he himself was in part responsible. The ordinances of the Spurriers of London ordered that "no one of the trade shall hang his spurs out on Sunday, or any other days that are double feasts; but only a sign indicating his business; and such spurs as they do sell they are to show and sell within their shops, without exposing them without or opening the doors or windows of their shops, on the pain aforesaid."¹

As to the quality of product that would be most profitably marketed there was again place for a clash between the individual guildsman and the agencies of control. The desire individually to profit by adulteration and the sale of inferior goods must have been strong, but social agencies controlled. For example, the ordinances of the Pelterers of London required that "no one of the trade shall mingle bellies of calabre with furs of puree, or of minever of bisshes."² And when one acted against these ordinances he forfeited his furs to the guild in which the default was found, and, in addition, was imprisoned and fined upon his release. The Waxchandlers of London forbade, on pain of confiscation, imprisonment, and fine, the use of cobbler's wax, rosin, fat, "or other manner of refuse," or the use of old wax and worse within and new wax without.³ The Pepperers of Soperlane had a list of forbidden acts that reflects a recognition of more deceitful ingenuity, and so profit-seeking, than of pious honesty among that "worshipful brotherhood," and the White-tawyers demanded an amercement and a forfeit from all who falsely wrought skins.⁴ The Ordinances of the Pewterers of London laid down the combination of metals for rounded and squared articles, and forbade manufacture until the wardens had assayed the metal. The Glovers forbade themselves to sell "false work." The Pewterers left the punishment to the discretion of the wardens, but the Glovers ordered that such goods should be burned, which "was accordingly done, on Monday

¹ Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, pp. 321-22.

² *Ibid.*, p. 329. *Calabre*, a poor fur; *puree*, a superior fur; *bisshes*, some part of the skin of the hind.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 300.

⁴ A. E. Bland, P. A. Brown, and R. H. Tawney, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

next after the feast of St. Gregory the Pope, with some fifty-four false pouches" and seventeen pairs of gloves which were found upon various members of the guild at about that time. The Furbishers made regulations about the reforging of broken swords and prescribed the kind of leather that might be used in scabbards.¹

The question of working hours and the conditions of work were likewise matters on which the craftsman must have found himself of one opinion in his own shop and of another in the guild hall. The exercise of self-interest, however, brought him into conflict with social regulation. The Spurriers of London found that "many persons of the said trade had compassed how to practice deception by working by night rather than by day." "And then they introduce false iron, and iron that has been cracked, for tin, and also they put gild on false copper and cracked." Further than this, these night workers spent the day in wandering about and then "having become drunk and frantic, they take to their work." Annoyance to the sick, and broils with the neighbors were the inevitable results, as well as danger to the whole city, from the sparks "which so vigorously issue forth in all directions from the mouths of chimneys in their forges." The London Hatters forbade night work for the express purpose of allowing the wardens all opportunity to inspect the work of the craftsmen. The Glovers went a step farther than either of these, and put the ban not only on artificing at night, but on selling as well.²

Wages as well as hours and conditions of work were part of the guildsman's labor problem. It would be only less erroneous to assume that each individual craftsman and journeyman was habituated to and satisfied with prevailing rates than to assume that the modern manager is happily acquiescent with the minimum-wage and child-labor laws or that trade unions are always content with the findings of arbitration boards. The whole organization of apprenticeship was, of course, in one sense the setting up of machinery

¹ Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, "Ordinances of the Pewterers, Articles of the Glovers, and Ordinances of the Furbishers," pp. 232-50, 258. The furbishers had a special injunction forbidding a guildsman to take any manner of work from a lord or other great person "if he be not a man perfect by reason of the great perils which may befall the lords and among others the people."

² Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, "Ordinances of the Glovers," pp. 239, 246.

to administer certain labor matters, but we find that general questions of wages of journeymen or "any of our servants" to be paid in the guild were to be met¹—these, of course, more pressingly later on. Wage appeals were made² and in certain towns what we would think of as crude labor exchanges were established to provide for the best adjustment of the supply of labor to the demand.³

THE PROBLEM OF UNFAIR COMPETITION

We are sometimes inclined to assert that the craft guilds were monopolistic and thus lead ourselves to the thought that the craftsman escaped the problems of competition. A more careful analysis shows this to be an error. Among the merchant guilds the "common fund" of profits may have been sometimes known, but such an agreement was not consistent with craft-guild organization. The craft guilds were examples of association rather than amalgamation or merger. Each individual felt the pressure of his own pecuniary interests as well as the interests of the whole. In so far as comparisons are possible with modern monopolistic organizations the guilds are better compared to wholesalers' or retailers' trade associations than to the United States Steel Corporation or the Northern Securities Company. They were associations rather than combinations, and there must have been a constant pressure by the individual to override the ruling of the association just as in the early industrial pools the members were with difficulty kept in line.

All of the regulations regarding quality of work which were so carefully supervised by the wardens are indications that the market interests of one individual were at odds with those of another in the same craft. But more than this, some guilds made doubly sure that no individual should gain at the expense of his guild and escape through lack of identification. One investigator of trade-marks goes so far as to say: "As a rule, a master, on becoming

¹ *York Memorandum Book* (Durham: Andrews & Co., 1912), Vol. CXX of the Publications of the Surtees Society, p. 107.

² Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, p. 307.

³ See E. Lipson, *An Introduction to the Economic History of England* (London: A. and C. Black, Ltd., 1915), I, 309-10, for a more extended discussion.

such, was required to choose a mark. This mark he was obliged to use on all his goods, and to retain all his life. The marking of goods with this mark was neither optional, nor a mere right, but was an obligation to his gild; it was a part of his duty to the community demanded by the strict social order of the craft guilds of the Middle Ages."¹

So general a conclusion may somewhat overstate the case, but certain it is that many of the guilds recognized the competitive dangers of anonymous production even in the limited market of the time. The articles of the heaumers (helmet-makers) of London required that each should have his own mark. Loss of freedom was the penalty for violation. The blacksmiths of the same town required that all work not marked should be forfeited.² The bakers of Chester also were required to mark certain loaves and to register their marks.³ The spirit of competition, then, was pressing even if it was restrained by regulation.

But not only within the guild was there a tendency to compete. Ever urgent was the problem of competition between guilds. In recent months we have heard of the Wholesale Grocers' Association in vigorous complaint to the federal government against what they regarded as the unfair encroachments of the packers who, in the process of integrating allied industries, have been working into fields previously occupied by the complainants. Similar conflicts were frequently among the questions to which the craftsman manager found need to address himself. Thus in London in 1395, a dispute arose between the cobblers and the cordwainers, in which the cobblers alleged that they could no longer make a living as formerly, because of the encroachments of the cordwainers on their trade. The mayor commanded an inquisition by twenty-four men,

¹ Edward S. Rogers, "Historical Matter Concerning Trade Marks," *Michigan Law Review*, IX, 29-43. Mr. Rogers quotes most frequently from Kohler, "Das Recht des Markenschutzes," but referring to Statute 4 Edward IV C. P. I., Richard III C. 8 (11 Statutes of the Realm, pp. 404-6) points out that "these matters were regarded in much the same way in France, Italy, Germany, and England."

² Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.* ("Articles of the Heaumers and Articles of the Blacksmiths"), pp. 238, 539.

³ Rupert H. Morris, *Chester in the Plantagenet and Tudor Reigns* (Chester: Printed for the author, 1893), p. 415.

twelve of whom were to be "new workers called cordwainers of the said city, and twelve were old workers called cobblers." They were charged to present and declare that which was due and would belong in "right and reason to either side." To plead this important question must have involved no small knowledge of the history of the crafts, their customs and recognized rights, and the interests involved. It was settled to the satisfaction of all, it being agreed "that no person who meddles with old shoes, shall meddle with new shoes to sell; and that every manner of work which may be made of new leather belong to the new workers without their meddling with any old work to sell."¹

In adjusting his individual business, therefore, to its social environment the master-craftsman manager faced a number of problems of peculiar difficulty and complexity. Coloring all of them and confusing all of them was the fact that he must consider them from several points of view at the same time. Whether he considered his problem of wages, labor, hours and conditions of work, advertising, the quality of goods, or the proper nature of competition, his was not a single eye. He was at once employer, worker, legislator, public citizen, and, perhaps, municipal official. He made guild regulations to restrain what he himself wished to do. He was the object of his own legislation. In a position of such difficulty and complexity he held company with his fellow-guildsman and into that company he admitted new members. But he admitted them only by the road which he helped to build—the road of apprenticeship.

Such a view of the craftsman's problems indicates something of the real purpose of this institution. It brought the novice into real competition with his fellow-guildsmen but it brought him also into a real partnership. It qualified him not only to work but to vote on all the social questions that were of business importance. It was thus, in a way, not unlike the present ideal which we hold for education in a democracy—an instrument qualifying for equal participation in activities of social, business, and political life.

¹ Henry Thomas Riley, *op. cit.*, II, 540. A case similar to this which was not settled until it reached Parliament, is described by I. B. Heath in "Some Account of the Grocers Company," p. 122. Here the Druggists Company, claiming a monopoly of the trade, prayed protection against the invasion of the College of Physicians.

With a culmination to apprenticeship so significant to the guild it would be indeed strange if apprenticeship was, as the tool of the guild, not molded to bring satisfactorily trained members into the brotherhood. And, in such a training, right attitudes and accepted points of view would be as important results as technical skill. There was need that the guild bring the new members to the common mind quite as much as a primitive tribe, a modern nation, or a trade union finds a need for training novitiates to the general attitudes of the group.

MORE DIRECT EVIDENCE OF THE SOCIALIZING CHARACTER OF
APPRENTICESHIP

There is a great deal of direct evidence indicating that apprenticeship was purposed to adjust the apprentice to his social environment. First of all it is worth while to wonder if a guild membership bought by many years of service would not go farther toward giving the new guildsman the desired point of view concerning the admission of new members than any amount of direct propaganda could have done. Moreover, this long training made the guildsman competent to teach technical work at least, which was necessary to continue the circle of guild life. That the pedagogical duties of the master were taken seriously by the guild becomes evident when it is noted that the guilds, at least in certain towns, did not allow everyone to assume the duties of instruction. Thus at Chester it was forbidden by the goldsmiths that the graduate apprentice should be allowed to take apprentices of his own, until he had served three years as a journeyman.¹

But there were in the organization of apprenticeship other elements which were definitely planned to guide the conduct of the apprentice, to regulate his morals, and to form his character in such a way that he would be fitted for his complicated task. The apprentice, apparently, was as strictly bound by regulations pertaining to his behavior as he was by those pertaining to his work.

¹ Rupert H. Morris, *Chester in the Plantagenet and Tudor Reigns* (Chester: Printed for the author, 1893), p. 443. Regulations having the same effect were in vogue at Leicester where the journeyman was required to work for wages for three years before setting up shop (*Records of Leicester*, III, 28). Similar rules prevailed for the carpenters and paviors of London.

If the guilds admitted undesirable characters to the brotherhood, it was not due to failure to attempt to exclude them. The apprentice was "bound" to behave. The master exercised a superintendence over his moral well-being, and this superintendence could be enforced with proper discipline. Even the apparel of the apprentice was regulated in a way purposed to be good for the cultivation of a spirit proper to his position. He was forbidden to gamble and even to enter gambling houses or other places of moral danger. The indenture binding Walter Byse, apprenticed to John Gare, says, "And the said Walter shall well and truly kepe his occupacyon, and do such things as the saide John shall bid him do, as unto the saide Walter shall be lawful and lefull, and the saide Walter shall be none ale goer neyther to no rebeld not sporte the said eight yeres without the license of the saide John." Roistering of any sort was frowned upon and "night roving" is a term in guild literature which always carries condemnation when applied to an apprentice. In some cases an examination or a proof of moral qualities was required of the apprentice before admission to the guild was permitted. The apprentice was frequently forbidden to marry until he had become one of the craft, or if allowed to marry the permission of the master was necessary.¹ Lacroix cites the following as rules laid down in an effort to inculcate morality and good feeling into the guild: (1) Youths were denied admission who could not prove legitimacy by baptismal register. (2) To obtain freedom the candidates must have irreproachable character. (3) Artisans exposed themselves to reprimand and chastisement for associating or working or drinking with those who had been expelled. (4) Licentiousness and misconduct rendered them liable to be deprived of membership.²

The master also who contracted to teach his trade to an apprentice was required by the guild regulations to pay strict attention to

¹ Instances of close supervision of conduct are shown in Joshua Toulmin Smith's "English Gilds, CXXIX," in *The Records of the City of Norwich* (Norwich: Jarrold & Sons, Ltd., 1906-10), II, 28; in Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 274; and in extracts from the *Records of the Merchant Adventurers of Newcastle-upon-Tyne* (Durham: Andrews & Co., 1895-99), Vol. XCIII of the Publications of the Surtees Society, II, 20.

² Paul Lacroix, *Manners, Customs, and Dress during the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance Period* (London: Chapman & Hall, 1874), p. 295.

his moral and social education. The Ordinances of the Cappers of Coventry are perhaps typical in their provision that the wardens might admonish a master of whose treatment an apprentice complained and could remove the apprentice for better instruction to a different master. They tested the efficiency of instruction by yearly examinations of apprentices.

Finally, there was, as the most important element in the social education of the apprentice, his close, personal, and continuous relation to the master-craftsman. From the standpoint of training in the management of business, both in internal and external relations, the effect of this was all-important. The apprentice was associated with the master every day in the shop. He met those who came to sell and those who came to buy. Every attack upon the problems of internal administration was under his observation, and no contact with the social environment was so far removed that he was unaware of it. Daily he must have heard the master discuss the social situation with fellow-craftsmen of the same interests, and doubtlessly the apprentice, as he grew in skill and the confidence of the master, must have entered into the discussion of business problems.

The relationship of master and apprentice outside of the shop was of such a character as to effect the most desirable education for the apprentice, both in business and in all those important social contacts which have been described. The master was bound to feed, clothe, and house the apprentice. The younger man ate at his master's table, slept under his roof, aided the wife and family of the guildsman in their home, and was in a very full sense "one of the family." Social differences were small, and the future of the apprentice of such certainty, if he took advantage of circumstances, as to give no reason for a feeling of caste.

With such features, it is evident that the institution of apprenticeship was well planned to train for business in that broad sense which involves an adaptation to the social environment by which a business is limited and conditioned quite as much as in the technical processes of craft skill.

THE TEACHING OF ASSIMILATIVE READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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In England, the terms "read" and "reading" have a very much more comprehensive meaning than in the United States. With the English "to read" is to study; an earnest student is a "hard reader," and a difficult subject is "hard reading." Hinsdale pointed out long ago that "this broader usage marks the essential oneness of what we tend to divide."¹ The fact is that quite generally in our schools reading is regarded as an activity more or less unrelated to any definite and pointed result, unless it be the vague something called "appreciation," or "enjoyment," while study is regarded as a highly specialized intensive application to books with the purpose of acquiring certain specific results. Reading as such is assumed to be an activity peculiarly fitted for English departments; study, on the other hand, is an activity for history, civics, science, and the other content subjects.

That there is an "essential oneness" in all reading certainly does not mean that every reading situation is like every other, or that any two reading situations may be regarded as exactly identical. Indeed, that all reading situations are treated exactly the same way by children and by many adults is one of the most serious shortcomings of our current instruction; it is one of the weak spots which any progressive program of instruction must endeavor to correct. Efficient habits of extracting and assimilating the contents of the printed page are many and varied, increasing in complexity with the growing skill of the reader. The nature and difficulty of materials read, the familiarity and control of the reader within the field, his attitudes and his purpose in reading, and many other factors obvious at a moment's thought, all require from a capable reader a wide variety of methods of approach.

¹ B. A. Hinsdale, *Teaching the Language Arts*, p. 77. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1899.

Nevertheless, there is an essential oneness lying in the fundamental nature of all reading as an active, creative, discriminating process of thinking on the part of the reader. The error into which many children are led by our present faulty methods is the conception that reading is principally, or solely, a receptive process. "Remember what the author says and reproduce it" is an injunction perfectly sound and justifiable; it represents possibly the most important feature of reading for purposes of study. But mere receptivity at best is only one phase of the problem. As a popular writer has said, "We are constantly settling down into the lazy assumption that the text of a story is the story itself, that the words of a poem are the poem itself, and forgetting that they are only instructions as to what to do with our memories and our imaginations, our reason, and our understanding, in order to create within ourselves the story of the poem."¹ In another place, the same writer keenly phrases the all too neglected dynamic aspect of reading, neglected in spite of the fact that our modern psychology has all along been telling us that it is true: "Reading so far from being merely a receptive act, is a creative process. That is, it is 'creative,' not simply in the more or less cant-sodden 'artistic' sense, but in a biological sense as well. It is an active, largely automatic, purely personal, constructive functioning. It is, indeed, a species of anabolism. In short, it is a form of living."²

Whether or not it be granted that reading and study are one, there can be no doubt that some school agency on about the level of the upper grades ought definitely to assume as one of its major duties direct guidance into the habits of reading that underlie effective study. "The American educational system is essentially a reading system."³ After the more mechanical skills are attained in the primary and middle grades, the perusal of texts and of reference books becomes the chief learning medium of our pupils. Our pedagogical literature is replete with evidence that pupils do not know how to study, and with injunctions to establish good habits

¹ J. B. Kerfoot, *How to Read*, p. 198. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

² *Ibid.*, p. 5.

³ C. H. Judd, *Reading: Its Nature and Development*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. II, No. 4, p. 186. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1918.

of silent reading. Good books abound explaining the essential elements of study, and setting forth in general terms suggestions as to how much instruction may be given. A few attempts have been made to prescribe definitely *when* instruction in silent reading shall be given;¹ although like the other language skills, spelling and grammar, reading skill, usually represented as belonging everywhere, in reality is placed *nowhere*. *Where* instruction in silent reading shall be given has been answered, "Leave it to the various departments," with the result that only a few classes here and there receive instruction. *How* it shall be done with a definite program, is less frequently worked out, although, as will be evident, some of the suggestions here made have been borrowed from preceding studies.

In answer to the question, "*When* shall direct and special instruction be given in silent reading?" this article suggests grade seven;² in answer to the question *where*, in the English department, because reading is one of the fundamental language skills; in answer to *how*, the program below represents at least some of the suggestions or aspects of suitable instruction.

To be noted here is the point that the present discussion concerns *direct* instruction, specifically given, with the clear understanding on the part of pupils as to what they are doing, and why they are doing it. In the lower grades language training ought to be carried on under the direction of the teacher with little, if any, introspection on the part of pupils, certainly with very little analysis and with very little consideration on their part of the

¹ Charles E. Finch, "Junior High-School Study Tests," *School Review*, XXVIII (March, 1920), 220-24.

² Bulletin No. 2, 1917, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools*, voicing the opinion of leaders in the teaching of the vernacular, nowhere advocates as part of the junior high school English direct guidance in habits of silent reading that underlie study. However, in various statements, the Committee lends support by implication. Such phrases as "the habit of thoughtful reading," p. 7; "the power to read them [books] thoughtfully," p. 31; "skill in three kinds of reading—cursory—carefully—consultation," p. 32; "Habits of intelligent reading to their after-school life," p. 68; "an effective tool of thought and expression for use in their public and private life," p. 30—these and others, without violence to their contexts, might yield basis for commandeering the support of the Committee on Reorganization for the program below.

mental processes employed. Such unconscious training in silent reading should begin very early. But the seventh grade begins a new state of school life. The suggestion is here made that with the junior high school the time has come for a conscious understanding through analysis of actual processes, supplementing the informal guidance of lower grades. Pupils are to be made aware. Boys and girls of junior high school age may be definitely directed into a realization of their good and bad habits of reading, studying, and thinking. Standards of excellence may be held up to them for analysis and understanding, and specific drills for skill in the essentials of good *study reading* would appear to be as much in place as drills for number skills, oral-reading skills, or spelling skills.

What are the characteristics of a skilful silent reader, looking upon the process on the one hand as careful interpretation of what is read—selecting, evaluating, remembering, and reproducing—and on the other hand, as an active contribution toward what is read—questioning, supplementing, modifying, and using?¹

For an answer to this comprehensive question the following criteria are propounded: A skilful reader

1. Reads with a definite purpose, a problem, in mind,
2. Grasps the author's point of view and central theme,
3. Lays hold on the order and arrangement of the author's ideas,
4. Pauses occasionally for summarizing and repeating,
5. Constantly asks questions of his reading,
6. Continually supplements from his own mental stock,
7. Evaluates the worth of what he reads,
8. Varies the rate of his progress through the reading, and
9. Ties up what he reads with problems of his own.

The criteria here stated quite apparently have to do with the central thought processes of the reader looked upon as a co-operator with the writer in thinking relationships. A complete program projected as one of the units of seventh-grade language study would include many supplementary features, especially for pupils who have acquired proficiency in the mechanics of reading. For

¹ For an excellent discussion, see *Course of Study in English*, Circular No. 17. 1918, Richmond, Virginia, Public Schools. Other helpful books: McMurray: *How to Study*; Earhart: *Teaching Children to Study*; Adams: *Making the Most of One's Mind*; Kitson: *How to Use Your Mind*; Dewey: *How We Think*; Hall-Quest: *Supervised Study*.

example, such supplementary work would include various devices for increased skill in attacking the meaning of new words, a review of the essentials of phonics, syllabification, pronunciation, study of prefixes, suffixes, stems, diacritical markings, the study of synonyms, and equivalent phrases. But instruction in these mechanical skills is not to be regarded as a primary duty of the junior high school. Such work should be the stock-in-trade of remedial teachers with the slow readers of the fifth and sixth grades. The main reading task in the junior high school should be to define and explain to pupils and to direct them in the intellectual activities which lie at the basis of good reading and effective study. The obviously simple phrasing of the various headings in the program on pages 605-6 is an attempt to translate, into terms twelve- and thirteen-year-olds can understand, a few of the essential principles of interpreting thought relations which any good reader must master. The heart of the suggestion is a deliberate endeavor to propose an experimental program which may prevent children from blundering into admittedly uneconomical habits of reading, habits which more and more become the crux of their later educational efforts in English and in other reading subjects.

The nine characteristics of a good reader suggested above quite obviously are intended to represent important phases of his intellectual activity. In other words, a direct effort is made to increase the children's *comprehension* of what they read or, better, to form with them consciously an analysis of what they must do well to comprehend well. Investigations have shown that in general pupils whose rate of reading is economical, who are relatively rapid readers, usually rank high in comprehension.¹ This does not mean that rapid readers comprehend well, *because* they read rapidly; it indicates that skill both in rate and in comprehension in reading may be attributed to the same general causes—mental alertness, or native endowment, together with the mastery of those mechanics mentioned above. That there is no direct causal relation between rapidity of rate and high comprehension is borne

¹ W. S. Gray, *Studies of Elementary-School Reading through Standardized Tests*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 1, p. 134. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1916.

out by other investigations which indicate that direct training to increase speed causes a falling off in comprehension,¹ and, on the contrary, training in comprehension results in greater economy of rate of reading.² This is the justification for making prominent training in the thought relationships of efficient comprehension. The proposal is that a seventh- or possibly an eight-grade English class shall set aside (for laboratory exercises in silent reading) one day each week of a school year of nine months. This would leave four-fifths of the English time for the other branches, literature, oral reading, composition, grammar, and spelling.

Silent-reading activities for one day of each week might be distributed by months, weeks, and days as follows:

SILENT-READING OBJECTIVES FOR SEVENTH GRADE

1. First month: *Speeding up silent reading*
 - a) Tests to acquaint pupils with their rate of reading
 - b) Attacking new words boldly (individual difficulties in word analysis, etc.)
 - c) Trying to see several words at one time (grouping and phrasing for perception of thought groups)
 - d) Learning when to read rapidly and when to read slowly
2. Second month: *Purpose in reading* (purposes and problems, old and new; goals)
 - a) Does the reader bring a problem to his reading?
 - b) Does the reading itself suggest a problem?
 - c) Reading carefully for one's problem
 - d) Finding a new problem growing out of one's reading
3. Third month: *Grasping the central thought in reading* (unity and forward movement of thought)
 - a) Is the master-idea in the title?
 - b) Finding the clue sentence and sign-posts
 - c) Is the master-idea repeated in each paragraph?
 - d) Contribution of each paragraph to the master-idea
4. Fourth month: *Getting a bird's-eye view of the reading* (comprehending the reach; recalling main heads)
 - a) Noting the plan of the writer
 - b) Selecting the outstanding ideas
 - c) Details building up each main thought
 - d) Stopping to recall the main points

¹ C. T. Gray, *Types of Reading Ability as Exhibited through Tests and Laboratory Experiments*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 5, p. 157. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1917.

² *Ibid.*, p. 161.

5. Fifth month: *Helping the writer in reading* (the reader's active participation)
 - a) Two minds active in reading
 - b) Reading between the lines
 - c) What is the writer's message for the reader personally?
 - d) His different message for other people
6. Sixth month: *Tying up what we know with our reading* (the meaning of assimilation)
 - a) Recalling similar experiences of one's own
 - b) Recalling different experiences
 - c) Asking questions of the writer
 - d) Tying up one lesson with another
7. Seventh month: *Selection in our reading* (personal preferences)
 - a) Discovering personal likes in reading
 - b) Following the promptings of curiosity
 - c) Determining the worth of a selection
 - d) Passing by the unimportant
8. Eighth month: *Judging values in our reading* (weighing the worth of statements)
 - a) Whose statements may one rely upon?
 - b) Having our own opinions when we read
 - c) The difference between knowing and guessing
 - d) Being perfectly sure and fair and honest
9. Ninth month: *Making use of our reading* (active utilization of results)
 - a) Being alert to solve problems
 - b) Storing ideas away for future use
 - c) Putting information into action
 - d) Various ways of using our reading

In this program, the first month's work might be considered introductory, bringing before the pupils the general problem of economical procedure in reading, making them aware of their own attainments as compared with certain norms or standards of groups similar to their own. Experiments in the seventh and ninth grades of the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools have shown that children are greatly interested in working out through exercises class standards in both rate and comprehension. During this first month, the effort should be definitely to classify pupils according to their language needs. Rapid, careless readers should be induced to slow down, reading with their minds much more definitely fixed upon their task; slow, laborious readers with lip movements should receive appropriate drill. Children deficient

in oral reading should be put through rapid reviews of phonics, and be given exercises in syllabification, pronunciation, and the like. Slow readers may be given drill in recognizing groups of words in learning to grasp groups of words in one eye span. In general, the class should be introduced, first, to a realization of the large question of economical reading and, second, to individual questions of personal needs.

The second month's work, *purpose in reading*, strikes directly at the aimless way in which many pupils take up a book to "get their lesson," after receiving the traditional assignment, "Go as far as page 184," or "study to the end of the chapter." Class discussion and laboratory work, embracing frequent excursions into current lessons in other classes, are based upon what the *purpose* in reading is, what the specific problems in the mind of a reader mean,¹ how the reading itself, examined chiefly with certain objectives in mind, may still be able to suggest new problems to an alert mind. Here is abundant opportunity for developing the contrast between slow, deliberately slow, perusal of critical parts which contain the meat for a reader's primary purpose, and rapid summary passing over of less essential matters. What is a goal in reading? What are the criteria by which side lines may be recognized?

The work of the third and fourth months has to do with the more *receptive* aspects of the reader's task. Pupils are to be taught that their first duty is finding out, understanding, and remembering exactly what the writer has to give them. The eight subheadings indicate lines of discussion which will lead to an understanding of and practice in the *overlooking* habits by which a good reader, in a detached and more or less impersonal way, gives the writer his opportunity to tell his story to a fair-minded listener.

For months five to eight inclusive are suggested laboratory activities which have been found to give seventh- and ninth-grade children much delight. They are now specifically taught to regard their reading as a process to which they are privileged to contribute. They are playing a game as active partners with the

¹ Joseph Peterson, "The Effect of Attitude on Reproduction," *Jour. Ed. Psy.*, VII (1916), 523-25.

writer. Their minds are as active in the reading process, trying to help, to supplement, to inquire, and to direct, as they are in the oral composition class, when they are listening to one of their fellows. Keynotes for the successive months are Helping, Supplementing, Selecting, and Evaluating. The ninth month brings the cycle back to its starting point of months one and two, and leaves uppermost in the minds of the pupils the active utilization of results as the chief goal of reading for the purpose of study.

As an example of laboratory procedure which might be used, classroom devices are suggested for teaching objective *b*, of the fifth month:

READING BETWEEN THE LINES

Have you ever heard the expression "reading between the lines"?
Let us make our own explanation of the saying.

I

Read—"Perseverance is a great element of success."

Think—I remember when I worked very hard and learned a difficult lesson. Another time I gave up in disgust and made a failure. The diligent workers in our grade are good pupils.

Read—"If you only knock long enough and loud enough at the gate

Think—Of course, the poet can't be talking of a real gate. Knocking long and loud means repeated efforts to succeed. It means trying over and over again.

Read—"You are sure to wake up somebody."

Think—Loud noise does wake up people. But the sentence must mean more than waking a sleeping man; it means attaining success.

II

Read—"Count that day lost whose low descending sun

Think—Boy Scouts take an oath to do a "kind deed" for someone every day. Kind deeds are not the only worthy actions. I recall one piece of hard work; I recall an unkind deed.

Read—"Views from thy hand no worthy action done."

III

Fill in between the lines:

"When freedom from her mountain height

Unfurled her standard to the air

[Put in pride in our country's flag. Pride in what the flag stands for]

She tore the azure robe of night

And set the stars of glory there."

IV

Can we not see that we do not read merely words—not little black marks put together on paper? We do not read sentences and paragraphs. We read *ideas* and *meaning* which are often not found in the cold words before us. "And set the stars of glory there," seven little words only. But we think of forty-eight white stars on a blue ground, each star standing for a state. We see the sisterhood of the states. They are stars of *glory*. All that our fathers and their fathers have done makes the United States what she is. There is *no end* to the meaning we may read into the six words, "Set the stars of glory there."

V

The paragraph which follows might be taken from textbooks in geography. Check any two lines, write them widely apart on your paper, and try to fill in between them with a rough drawing, a diagram, or picture, or words of your own.

In many coal mines there are rooms that have been made by digging out the coal. There is always danger that the roof of such a room may cave in because of the great weight of overlying rock and earth. To prevent this, pillars of high-grade coal are left standing. Sometimes, too, a roof of coal is left. When this "pillar and stall" method is used, much good coal from the better layers is never taken from the ground. There is another method, known as the "long wall" method, in which the miner supports the roof behind him as he works by filling in rock and shale. In this way, all the coal is taken out.

VI

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES

1. "The American flag has been the symbol of liberty."
Fill in with examples from 1775, 1864, and 1918.

2. "Men rejoiced in the American flag."
Name several nations that have rejoiced.
3. "When Arnold would have surrendered West Point."
You may know this story; if not, your teacher will read it, or have one of you ready to tell it. The others may fill in the lines.
4. Write a sentence about one of your other lessons.
Exchange sheets of paper. Try to "read between the lines" of your classmate's sentence. Write out what you read. Select some of the sentences for the blackboard.
5. What do you think of this statement:
"If an author is worth anything, you will not get his meaning all at once"?

A program similar to that just suggested, worked out for each of the thirty-six objectives named in the outline on pages 605-6 or for other objectives which may seem preferable to any experimenter, provides for the incoming English classes of the junior high school at least one innovating type of language drill. It is one means by which English teachers in the new intermediate school may vary the traditional work of the upper grades; one way by which they may enrich their own instruction, and at the same time better prepare their pupils for good study habits in all their reading courses.

MEASURING IMPROVEMENT IN LANGUAGE ESSENTIALS

FRANK J. PLATT

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The English department of the Oak Park High School conducted an experiment to determine what improvement could be made by its pupils with a list of twenty-one essentials in composition. The survey measured the writing ability of the entire student body, fifteen hundred pupils, in September, 1919, and in February and June, 1920. The list of minimum requirements, twenty-one in all, is given below. For the various tests composition assignments were given calling for papers one page in length upon the topic "An Interesting Experience." Papers were scored by using the index numbers one to twenty-one of the minimal list.

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS IN NINTH-GRADE ENGLISH 1920

1. Use *complete sentences* in all connected writing.
2. Make the *subject* agree with the *verb*.
3. Use *personal pronouns* correctly; know the declensions.
4. Know the principal parts of the following verbs: *see, do, come, go, sit, lie, give, begin, ring, and write*.
5. Use a *period* at the end of declarative sentences.
6. Use a *comma* to set off words in *direct address*.
7. Use a *comma* to set off expressions in a *series*.
8. Use a *comma* to set off *appositives*.
9. Use a *comma* to set off short *direct quotations*.
10. Use a *comma* before *and, but, for, and so*, between *co-ordinate clauses*.
11. Use a *question mark* at the end of *interrogative sentences*.
12. Use *quotation marks* to inclose a *direct quotation*.
13. Use an *apostrophe* to denote the *possessive case* of nouns.
14. Use an *apostrophe* to denote the *omission of letters and figures*.
15. Use a *capital letter* to begin the *first word* of a sentence.
16. Use a *capital letter* to begin important words in *titles of themes, essays, and books*.
17. Use a *capital letter* to begin the first word of a *direct quotation*.
18. *Spell correctly*; consult the *dictionary* on doubtful words.

19. Avoid *unnecessary commas*.
20. Avoid *unnecessary capital letters*.
21. Avoid the *comma blunder* by using a *semicolon* or a *period*.

In Table I individual teachers are numbered 1, 2, 3, etc.; below each teacher's number is placed the average number of errors (twenty-one kinds only) made per pupil in one page of composition.

TABLE I

	Freshmen							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
September.....	3.4	2.7	5.8	2.7	5.1	4.0	2.7	2.6
February.....	1.6	3.5	1.8	1.1	1.8	2.4	1.8	1.4
June.....	0.7	1.5	1.9	1.2	1.5	2.4	1.0	0.8
	Sophomores							
	3	4	7	8	9	10	11	12
September.....	1.7	1.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	1.1	4.1	1.6
February.....	1.7	2.9	2.8	2.2	0.9	1.6	3.3	1.1
June.....	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.7
	Juniors							
	1	2	6	7	9	10		
September.....	1.8	2.0	3.0	0.9	2.0	0.8		
February.....	1.3	1.8	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.4		
June.....	0.4	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0		
	Seniors							
	1	2	3	4	6	8	9	11
September.....	3.7	3.0	3.8	3.0	3.5	2.0	2.7	3.3
February.....	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.2	0.9	0.9	2.3
June.....	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.4		0.4
Summary Averages for Entire Classes								
	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior				
September.....	3.9	2.4	1.6	2.9				
February.....	1.9	2.0	1.3	1.0				
June.....	1.4	1.0	0.9	0.4				

The September data were put into the hands of the teachers, and the department set out to teach the twenty-one essentials with more professional interest. The February survey revealed an improvement in almost all classes, Freshman and Senior classes showing the most marked advance. The Seniors, their pride awakened by their poor showing in September, made very marked progress. The teachers advanced various explanations for the progress or retrogression of their classes; for example, teacher No. 2 explained that several very poor writers had entered her Freshman class after September. Teachers 3, 4, and 7 mentioned the excessive amount of literature in the first half of English II as a possible explanation. The total average score, however, for each class in February is much lower, and, therefore, better, than the September performance.

TABLE II

TOTAL ERRORS FOR SEPTEMBER, 1919, FEBRUARY AND JUNE, 1920

ERRORS	FRESHMEN			SOPHOMORES			JUNIORS			SENIORS		
	Sept.	Feb.	June	Sept.	Feb.	June	Sept.	Feb.	June	Sept.	Feb.	June
1.....	44	32	23	75	77	11	13	21	14	8	9	5
2.....	19	19	17	20	31	17	7	13	10	9	2	6
3.....	11	13	11	20	6	13	10	29	9	17	4	3
4.....	36	21	8	5	5	4	18	3	3	15	3	1
5.....	90	13	18	45	19	8	4	14	5	17	5	2
6.....	12	9	22	20	4	3	3	9	2	20	1	0
7.....	25	14	9	34	36	11	14	8	5	31	9	5
8.....	18	10	11	17	2	7	2	4	16	7	3	0
9.....	21	9	3	7	3	1	4	2	2	9	1	0
10.....	382	113	68	85	117	23	70	80	21	152	46	16
11.....	15	14	13	12	15	3	9	31	10	37	9	2
12.....	51	13	18	14	6	5	3	12	7	16	0	1
13.....	118	54	47	50	50	36	16	16	13	20	18	6
14.....	14	11	3	29	13	7	7	9	10	32	1	0
15.....	48	5	8	24	9	3	4	2	0	0	3	1
16.....	27	22	13	8	9	3	14	17	7	17	5	1
17.....	13	1	2	4	0	1	3	3	7	8	0	2
18.....	494	307	252	398	361	207	125	180	116	179	117	42
19.....	132	72	37	88	103	35	35	28	7	5	19	7
20.....	40	35	19	47	48	32	11	13	7	26	12	6
21.....	165	50	44	61	54	22	32	21	9	29	10	3
Total....	1,775	837	646	1,069	968	452	404	515	280	654	277	109
Papers....	451	423	452	444	484	431	239	377	303	219	273	222
Average..	3.9	1.9	1.4	2.4	2.0	1.0	1.6	1.3	0.3	2.9	1.0	0.4

The June averages, as can be seen in Tables I and II, were all better. Table II, especially, shows that about the same faults persist in all classes throughout the year, even though there is a notable decrease. The spelling record (18), the independent clause score (10), the incomplete sentence (1), the comma blunder showing (21), the apostrophe (13), and the period figures (5) are serious offenders in the beginning and at the end of the school year.

It appears desirable that an English department have similar data every year in order to determine its real progress. The compilation entails drudgery, but the exhibit justifies the expenditure of time and strength. With such comparisons before them, both teachers and pupils work eagerly to bring their work to a high standard. Many researches of this sort may accumulate evidence which will enable us to say that a Freshman should make not more than four mistakes per page in September, two in February, and one in June. If many high schools could thus measure their achievement, there might be made possible an inter-city and an inter-state standard. Of course, the ideal of 100 per cent perfect should always be the ultimate objective in all classes at all times.

A COURSE IN MODERN SOCIAL PROBLEMS FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL¹

ERNEST H. SHIDELER
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It is the purpose of this paper to reproduce some of the reactions of high-school pupils to an experimental course in Modern Social Problems which was organized and taught by the writer in the University High School, School of Education, University of Chicago, during the past year. The course, consisting of a study of a series of social problems, was open to Seniors only. There were no prerequisites, but the printed announcement recommended the other social-science courses as preparatory for this course.²

No textbook was available to cover the problems as planned. In view of this fact the writer used the topical library reference method, following an outline made in advance. Practically all of the well-known texts covering social, economic, and political problems, suitable for high-school Seniors, were secured for reference material. Mimeographed material, prepared by the teacher, was used in giving references and in providing supplementary reading materials not available to the class otherwise. The following is a brief outline of the course.³

¹ That there should be a course in modern social problems in the high school, the committees of the leading educational and social-science associations agree. For information on the extent of this movement for social-science courses in the schools, see the following: "Tentative Report of the Committee of the American Sociological Society on 'The Teaching of Sociology in the Grade and High Schools of America,'" *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), 255-62; C. O. Davis, "Training for Citizenship in the North Central Association Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), 263-82; "Report of the Committee on Social Studies in the High School," *School Review*, XXVIII (April, 1920), 283-97; and L. C. Marshall, "The Relation of the Collegiate School of Business to the Secondary School System," *Journal of Political Economy*, XXVIII (February, 1920), 137-88.

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GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE IN
MODERN PROBLEMS

I. Society, Its Origin and Development.

What is society? origin and development; complexity of the social process; environment; the terms: community, group, institution; the wants of society; conflict of interests; co-operation; function; social heredity; social control.

II. The Family, Its Past and Present.

An institution; aspects of the family today; structure; function; failures to function; forms of the family; historical development of family; divorce; desertion; causes; remedies and prevention; juvenile delinquency; mothers' pensions; family rehabilitation; the ideal marriage and the ideal home life.

III. Labor and Industry: Making a Living.

Strikes; the conflict between capital and labor; analysis of factors involved; the origin and development of present conditions; making a living, man's primary task; the factors of production; industrial revolution; the nature of wealth and property; trusts, labor unions, and the public; the age of specialization; transportation; consumption; distribution; exchange; foreign commerce and the tariff; woman and child labor; the high cost of living; risks and wastes; insurance; socialism; social control of industries.

IV. Social Control by Governments.

The functions of governments; origin of government; historical development; description of municipal government in Chicago; its organization and operation; nature of laws, courts, and taxes; problems of the Chicago municipal government; description of our federal government; its functions; origin and historical development; national problems; public finances; the work of the executive departments.

V. The Health and Sanitation Movement.

The "flu" epidemic; its toll; methods of fighting; health and disease a problem through all history; health agencies among primitive peoples; historical development; advances in surgery; hospitals; growth of the sanitation movement; most common modern diseases; means of control of diseases; sanitation laws; pure-food laws; governmental health departments; personal hygiene; problems and lessons of the war; health and sanitation in Chicago.

VI. Immigration and Assimilation.

Racial characteristics of our population; the melting pot; our immigrants, yesterday and today; industrial effect of immigration; social effects of immigration; Americanization, what is it, and how; the undesirable immigrant; shall we restrict immigration? the negro problem; race riots; the negro of the future.

VII. Social Pathology.

Dependent, defective, and delinquent classes; poverty and pauperism; prevalence in the United States; causes of poverty; an eternal problem; environment and pauperism; hereditary factors; charities; public and private forms of relief; dependent children; defective classes; the blind; the deaf and dumb; the feeble-minded; the insane; institutional methods of relief and education; crime, what is it? prevalence of physical and social treatment; penitentiaries; industrial schools; probation system; criminal courts; juvenile courts; socialization: home training, moral training, and education.

VIII. The Church as a Social Institution.

Moral training; the church and religion; variety of religious sects and denominations; the function of the church; man a religious being; history of man's attempt to satisfy his religious desire; origin and growth of present-day churches; an agency of socialization; of social control; criticisms of the church; auxiliary organizations; the opportunity and possibilities of the church today; the future and the church.

As originally planned, the content of the course included also the topics: "Education," "The Problem of the City," "Conservation of Natural Resources," and "Democracy and Internationalism." As the course proceeded, circumstances peculiar to the organization of this particular high school made it impractical to attempt to cover all of the topics contemplated.

The foregoing syllabus will give the reader an incorrect impression of the course unless he interprets it in the light of the following facts concerning methods of presentation and the reactions of the students themselves.

TECHNIQUE OF PRESENTATION

It was thought necessary that the pupil secure at the beginning, as far as possible, the group co-operative viewpoint. Two devices were utilized in accomplishing this: an appeal to the student's own experience with group life such as family, school, teams, clubs, etc., and the reading of a historical narrative of the origin and step-by-step development of a western community.

It is difficult for a pupil to view his own community in a more or less impersonal and objective manner, especially if it be a large city. In order to assist in the observation of the community, mimeographed sheets with suggestions for points to be observed

were provided, not as an assignment to secure a particular number of facts which, when arrayed in the proper form, could be exchanged for a school grade, but simply as a guide to the pupils' observation. The purpose here was to develop a viewpoint, not to secure a definite amount of work. Each group reported to the class on its observations of the community visited and in most cases presented a sketch map to the other students in describing the life of the community.

The following is the outline given to the pupils and discussed in the classroom previous to the visitations:

OBSERVATION OF THE LIFE OF A COMMUNITY

- I. Natural Conditions
 - 1. Explaining the location of the town
 - 2. Natural resources of region tributary to the town
 - 3. Other physical environmental factors
- II. The People
 - 1. Population
 - 2. Races, proportional representation
 - 3. Peculiarities of the composition of the population
- III. Institutions
 - 1. Educational
 - 2. Religious
 - 3. Others
- IV. Commerce and Trade
 - 1. Stores
 - 2. Transportation
 - 3. Factories and mines
 - 4. Others
- V. Groups
 - 1. Clubs
 - 2. Labor unions
 - 3. Lodges
 - 4. Others
- VI. Communication
 - 1. Internal
 - 2. External
- VII. Agencies of Social Control
 - 1. Town government
 - 2. Courts
 - 3. Institutions for delinquents
 - 4. Others

VIII. Narrative of the Origin and Development of Community

IX. Sketch Map of Community

1. Streets
2. Institutions
3. Transportation lines
4. Physical environmental characteristics
5. Others

In addition to the foregoing type of work, field trips were made during the school year by the class and teacher, by groups, or by individual students to the following places: Lyon & Healy's Piano Factory, Chicago Board of Trade, Chicago Stock Exchange, Cook County Courthouse, election polls, session of Chicago City Council, fire-department stations, water-pumping stations, Hull-House, and the State Penitentiary at Joliet. The pupils voluntarily gave their Saturday mornings and after-school hours for these trips. One of the most productive exercises of the year was the trip of each student with his parent to the election polls, and the experience meeting during the class period on the following day.

A number of formal debates during the year, on questions closely related to the work in hand, proved interesting and stimulating. Students also took their weekly turn in surveying the daily papers for articles and cartoons pertinent to the problem being studied. Cartoons are often particularly effective teaching devices. The clippings were posted on the classroom bulletin board. Other devices were special reports and open classroom discussions. Note-books were required.

THE STUDENTS' REACTIONS

Near the close of the year's work, the students were asked to answer the following questions:

1. There is a movement to require a course of this kind of all high-school students. Would you favor or oppose? Give reasons for your answer.
2. In which of the problems included in this course were you most interested? Indicate your preference by placing a (1) before your first preference, a (2) before your second preference, and so on.
3. Which of the most commonly used books do you consider best for use in this course? Rank with numerals as you did above. Give briefly your reasons for your first preference.

4. How does the time required for preparation in this course outside of the classroom compare with that required by other courses?
5. Are the field trips to institutions, etc., worth while? Give your reasons.
6. What do you consider the weak points of this course? the strong points?
7. How in your opinion may the course be improved?

Below are given the results so far as they can be summarized and reduced to tabulation.

1. On the matter of requiring a course in modern social problems of all high-school students, one was opposed and twenty-six were in favor. The following are seven typical comments made by those favoring:

I favor making it required, because it teaches pupils to think as much as mathematics or Latin. Not only does it teach one to think but also how to organize. Besides these things, it is of some use. It gives one a broader view of society in general.

I think this course is different from all the rest which makes it especially desirable. It is more practical as it is what we meet every day.

If people are taught these things when they are young they will be an influence, perhaps, on their own lives or they may be able to influence others. Thus it forms a basis for the future. If people are interested in this subject early they may become a help to society when they are older.

Makes the student realize the problems of society and the serious side of life. Problems like "Labor and Industry" and "Social Control by Government" would be of actual value to any individual in making a living or being a good citizen.

Favor. Many don't go to college and will never have a chance to study these problems.

I favor making it required. Right along we have been giving as remedies for our social difficulties "education," making people realize the importance, or the danger of so and so. Certainly there is no better way of carrying out a part of that than right here. An appreciation of our social problems is a great asset to one's usefulness in any capacity. One of the things of great value which I have gotten from this class is the fact that a great field of new material and thought has been opened for me. I probably will not remember all the facts that I have learned here, but I do know, and I shall not forget, where to get them.

I favor. It gives a grasp of many problems with which we daily come in contact. Besides acquainting us with present-day problems it gives us valuable training in (1) use of textbooks and research work to obtain material, (2) observation of essential topics of literature, (3) ability to think, (4) ability to cope with large questions (that are not limited in scope), and (5) presenting arguments effectively.

The opposer said:

I oppose. I believe that only mathematics and English should be required high-school subjects. While this course is useful and worth while, it is not essential enough that it should be required of the high-school student.

2. Table I summarizes the pupils' statements concerning the relative interest in the topics studied.

TABLE I
POPULARITY OF TOPICS AMONG PUPILS. PROPORTION OF PUPILS RANKING PARTICULAR TOPICS AS AMONG THE THREE MOST INTERESTING TOPICS STUDIED

TOPICS*	STUDENTS STUDY- ING TOPICS			RANKING OF TOPICS FIRST, SECOND, OR THIRD						RANKING IN POPULARITY		
	Girls	Boys	Both	Girls		Boys		Both		Girls	Boys	Both
	Num- ber	Num- ber	Num- ber	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage			
Family.....	13	11	24	7	54.6	1	9.0	8	33.3	4	6	(4-5)
Labor and indus- try.....	13	11	24	8	61.5	9	81.8	17	70.8	3	1	3
Social control by government.....	14	13	27	1	7.1	6	46.1	7	26.0	6	4	6
Health and sani- tation.....	14	13	27	5	35.7	4	30.7	9	33.3	5	5	(5-4)
Immigration and assimilation.....	14	13	27	11	77.1	10	76.9	21	77.7	1	2	1
Social pathology...	14	13	27	10	71.4	9	69.3	19	73.7	2	3	2

*The first and last topics in the course were not included in the ranking by the pupils. The former "Society, its Origin and Development," was of an introductory nature and the latter, "The Church as a Social Institution," was not entirely completed at the time of the questionnaire.

It is interesting to note from the table on popularity of topics that "Immigration and Assimilation" was the most popular topic, while "Social Pathology," which, as presented, was principally a study of crime and poverty, came next in interest to these high-school pupils. "Labor and Industry" ranked third in popularity. While it does not seem advisable to use space to present the detailed tabulation of all the rankings yet there are some significant facts to be pointed out. Variation in the pupils'

interests is indicated by the fact that each one of the six topics was ranked as being the most interesting of all by one or more pupils.

A comparison of the preferences of the boys and the girls shows that the boys considered "Labor and Industry" the most interesting of all, while the girls placed it third in ranking. Connected with the fact that the girls preferred "Immigration and Assimilation," the inference might be made that girls are more interested in *people* and population, and boys are more interested in the process of *making a living*.

Another comparison should be noted in the case of the topic, "Social Control by Government." No girl placed it first or second, and only one girl considered it of sufficient interest to rank it as third. At the same time 78 per cent of the girls as contrasted to 15 per cent of the boys considered "Government" one of the two least interesting topics.

The attitude of the boys as contrasted to that of the girls toward "The Family" as a topic for study is interesting. We have here almost the reverse of the situation in the case of "Government." No boy ranked the "Family" as his first or second preference, and only one boy considered it of sufficient interest to rank it third; over 36 per cent of the boys ranked it sixth, indicating that it was the least interesting of all to them. As a whole the boys ranked the "Family" last and "Government" fourth; on the other hand, the girls ranked "Government" last and the "Family" fourth.

3. The response to the question as to which of the various books on social science for secondary schools used during the year was best showed that Ellwood's *Sociology and Modern Problems*, Towne's *Social Problems*, and Burch and Patterson's *American Social Problems* were the most popular. While it does not seem advisable to give the complete data, that is, listing all the books and their rankings, the tabulation below will indicate the relative popularity of these three:

	Number of Pupils Ranking		
	First	Second	Third
Burch and Patterson.....	1	13	12
Towne.....	3	11	13
Ellwood.....	22	3	1

Twenty-two out of twenty-seven pupils said that Ellwood's *Sociology and Modern Social Problems* was the most desirable text for a course in modern social problems. A few quotations will indicate what the high-school student considers the prerequisites of a good textbook:

Ellwood: Very thorough and seems to have a better insight into the problems than other books. When I read Ellwood I feel that I am getting the main points and am not bothered with unimportant details.

Burch and Patterson: An outline is printed at the beginning of each topic, so that a brief summary might be seen at once, and a slight knowledge of the topic secured. Few statistics; and each paragraph has its outstanding point in heavy print.

Towne: Organization is especially good. In reviewing you can find the main points of the subject in a sentence or two. Covers the whole field and brings out the important points.

Ellwood: In my opinion the strongest feature in its favor is that it points out so well the underlying *principles* which govern the facts. In giving remedies or criticizing others the author always goes much further below the superficial aspects of a situation than the other writers.

Ellwood: More confidence in the author, more advanced material, style more scholarly, terminology more technical, clear organization, and an admirable lack of unimportant statistics.

Although no two of the books used cover exactly the same field, yet a survey of the comments made by students seems to indicate that they do not care for statistics and an array of facts when the author fails to interpret them fully. Students also seem to appreciate very definitely a good organization of the material. It is not to be expected that high-school students will interpret cold facts and statistics without much assistance from author or teacher.

4. The fourth question was: "How does time required for preparation in this course outside of the classroom compare with that required by your other courses?" A tabulation of the replies gives the following result: more time, 14; same amount of time, 11; less time, 2.

5. "Are the field trips to institutions, etc., worth while?" No, 3; yes, 24. The pupils seem convinced on this point and were

quite outspoken in their reasons. The following are some of the typical comments:

You can learn more by visiting a factory when you are studying "Labor and Industry" than by all the reading put together.

Some learn more this way than in class and understand the problems better.

Gives one a feeling in the subject, that is, it isn't like a mathematics problem.

Seeing is more impressive than reading.

It is easier to grasp the concrete than the abstract.

I sometimes learn more from a trip than from three or four days of study.

Because we can see the actual functioning of the institutions.

Makes you see the problems more clearly.

6. The pupils were asked to state what, in their opinions, were the weak and strong points of the course. These points cover both the content of the course and the method of presentation. The following is a summary of the most repeated comments:

STRONG POINTS	WEAK POINTS
Gives a realization and appreciation of social problems	Lack of satisfactory text material
Its practical value	Objections to certain problems
Particularly interesting	Need of more class discussion
Promotes better citizenship	Insufficient number of field trips
Training in thinking	Length of time given to particular topics
Training in organization	Too much written work

The point on which most agree is the lack of satisfactory text material for the course as a whole; certainly all teachers of such courses as this will agree. It is interesting to note that one boy thought that the absence of a textbook was a favorable feature of the course; two pupils mentioned training in how to use books as a favorable point. One objected to "too much theory" and others spoke of class discussions and trips to institutions as strong points. One of the most frequently repeated comments was the practical value of a course of this kind. One pupil was so outspoken on this point that she stated: "There is a tendency toward academic, impractical subjects in high schools, and there is a definite need for knowledge of pertinent subjects."

7. While this last question, from one viewpoint, was a repetition of the preceding one, yet it called for constructive suggestions for improving the course.

The following are the suggestions on which four or more pupils agreed: more field trips; securing of satisfactory text and collateral material; introduction of more daily current events; selection of a greater number of more concrete and less extensive problems; more class discussion.

CONCLUSIONS

1. If this group of pupils can be assumed to be typical, there can be no doubt as to the preference of high-school pupils concerning the desirability of introducing courses in social, economic, and political problems. Although it did not seem advisable to include the question in the foregoing questionnaire, yet, as an entirely separate exercise, the pupils were asked to compare the courses they were taking and, without giving their names or means of identification, to rank the subjects according to their value to them. While an effort was made to secure only sincere non-prejudiced answers, nevertheless the replies must be taken with reservations. The tabulation of rankings shows that of 27 pupils, 17 considered the course in "Modern Problems" the most valuable one being taken; nine ranked it second, and one ranked it third. Practically every high-school subject was represented in the rankings; a goodly number were taking mathematics, French, English, and physics.

2. It is to be hoped that when these new social-science courses are introduced formalistic methods of presentation will be avoided. The physical sciences without laboratory work and field trips would be of considerably less value. The same is true of the social sciences for the high-school pupils. It is true that the course as described requires preparation, time, and energy on the part of the teacher. It is recommended that, where practical, the time schedule provide for a "laboratory" or a field trip period for this and similar courses.

3. More material adapted to high-school pupils is needed. The content of the course should be of immediate interest and of practical value to the girls as well as to the boys. The material

must be something more than an array of facts and statistics; these facts must be given a living meaning, and the *principles* underlying them must be made evident.

4. A course of this kind requires considerable reading. The writer's experience leads him to believe that there is danger that too extensive note-taking will detract from the value and interest of the course. Discretion should be used and for some kinds of materials few or no notes should be required.

5. Because of the abstractness of social science, much open class discussion is necessary, as was so frequently and insistently expressed by the students in their comments. However, this should not lead to "mere forensic exchange of ignorant opinion." The teacher is responsible in this matter. If he is specially prepared for this work, he can and will guide the discussion along profitable lines. Adequate preparation is just as necessary for the social-science teacher as it is for the chemistry teacher. It is hoped that these new courses will not experience the fate of many history courses when first introduced, namely, that of being doled out to teachers of mathematics, Latin, English, agriculture, domestic science, and manual training.

Educational Writings

A SURVEY OF RECENT BOOKS IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH

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I. TEACHERS' HELPS

During the past twelve months six volumes have been sent to the *School Review* which may be classified as English teachers' aids. The first is *Our Living Language*¹ by Howard R. Driggs. The author has prepared a popularly written book, well suited for teachers' reading circles and for the supplementary reading of classes in methods of teaching English. He is a vigorous champion of what he calls "the American language," a living, growing, vital language. He advocates language training along "life lines of natural interests, experience, and service." "To teach our American language successfully," he says, "we must deal with it as something alive; we must teach it from the American viewpoint, and by truly democratic methods."

The book has a timely message; it is definite in plan and written in simple diction; it is straightforward in aim and method. As one commentator remarks, "Driggs's book is Wordsworthian; one yearns for a little quickening of the sap." But the interest is mainly in content, not in style. Driggs steers a medium course between decadent conversation and untried radicalism. He offers nothing outstandingly new, but assembles, under the slogan *serviceful self-expression*, the large variety of sound though somewhat chaotic pedagogical theories now extant into a practical system which he designates "the democratic method."

In *English Problems in the Solving*² Miss Sarah E. Simons has produced a book the substance of which was organized for lectures on the teaching of English in Johns Hopkins. Miss Simons' own contributions have been supplemented by several chapters, among the best in the book, by two

¹ HOWARD R. DRIGGS, *Our Living Language*. Chicago: University Publishing Co., 1920. Pp. 302.

² SARAH E. SIMONS, *English Problems in the Solving*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1920. Pp. 239.

colleagues, teachers in the Central High School of Washington, D.C. The treatment of the field is comprehensive rather than intensive; seven chapters are divided into from four to ten parts each, in all some forty topics, ranging from "The Problems of Grammar" to "The Drama." Herein lies the difficulty. For example, Miss McCohn, who wrote the section on "The Drama," found herself limited in space to five pages. We can imagine the impatience of a capable writer who, with a large subject, finds herself so handicapped. However, the treatment, necessarily more or less sketchy in spots, is evidently intended to guide the reader into further investigation in lines of his special interest. To this end the authors have appended to each section a series of problems for investigation, together with an appropriate bibliography consisting of references to articles in the pedagogy of English.

The authors' own views on controverted questions are clearly and unequivocally stated. For example, they stand for the separation of composition and literature but do not accept the radical advice of Snedden and others, that the two branches of English should be in the hands of entirely different sets of teachers. Again, on the use of scales, they refer the reader to leaders of the extreme wings, S. A. Courtis on the one hand, and C. H. Ward on the other. Again, the writers take a strong stand for "conscious, deliberate, rational imitation" as a means of learning to write. *English Problems in the Solving* will make its place as a reading-circle book, as a reference book for classes of teachers, and as a textbook in normal schools and colleges.

The third book here classified as a teachers' aid, *Learning to Write*,¹ is an attempt to gather and arrange in one volume all that Robert Louis Stevenson has left bearing directly upon the art of writing. The editor groups his excerpts to show something of Stevenson's theory of the craft of writing before leading the reader into a discussion of intricate technical details.

The book is perhaps best suited for teachers and for other more mature readers. However, one good test of the efficiency of a high-school English department might be this: How many of the more capable pupils can appreciate the sane yet brilliant observations of the master-artist upon his own craft?

Teachers who have used Greever and Jones's *The Century Handbook of Writing*, either as a text or as a highly useful reference book, will welcome a companion handbook, *The Facts and Backgrounds of Literature*,² in the preparation of which one of the authors of the former book has participated. Quite obviously the decimal plan of the composition book, in which the language references are reduced to one hundred, cannot be utilized in the new compilation. However, the front and back pages of *The Facts and Backgrounds of Literature* set forth in outline form the major periods of English literature, the place of each chronological subdivision in the body of the book being indicated

¹ JOHN WILLIAM ROGERS, JR. (Editor), *Learning to Write: Suggestions and Counsel from Robert Louis Stevenson*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. 225.

² GEORGE F. REYNOLDS and GARLAND GREEVER, *The Facts and Backgrounds of Literature*. New York: Century Co., 1920. Pp. 425.

by convenient page references. Part I presents "The Development of English Literature"; Part II, "American Literature"; Part III, "The Forms of Literature." An Appendix of sixty pages contains a condensed account of English customs, beliefs, institutions, games, holidays, and the like, which are intimately associated with the origin and history of our literature. Fifty illustrations, ranging from an "Anglo-Saxon Mansion" to a "Western Round-Up," enliven the book. An admirable reference work for senior high-school classes studying the history of literature.

A manual of reading,¹ outlining methods for *The Boys' and Girls' Readers*, texts for the middle grades, has been prepared by the author of that popular series. It is of interest to junior high-school teachers chiefly because of the introductory chapter, which discusses silent reading, oral reading, and appreciation as three co-ordinate phases of the reading problem. One might raise a question concerning Miss Bolenius' statement, "In silent reading it is the meanings of words that count most." However, it is encouraging to find so influential a textbook-maker endeavoring to lead the way in establishing definite programs for the most fundamental language skill—silent, assimilative reading.

Most English teachers are acquainted with one or more of James C. Fernald's textbooks, dictionaries, or more general treatises on various aspects of the vernacular. His latest volume, *Expressive English*,² may be properly called a series of essays, all dealing with the tool or workmanship aspects of the mother-tongue, and all growing out of the extensive experience which the author himself has enjoyed as a competent workman in his chosen field. Various classes of readers will be interested in different parts of the book. For example, the student of the history of the language will profit by chapters i, "The Simplicity of English," iii, "The Treasury of Words," and v, "English Synonyms"; the student of *belles lettres*, by chapters ii, "The Power of English," and iv, "A World Literature in English." The student of effective writing and speaking will profit by the last half of the book, the chapters dealing with appropriate topics. Mr. Fernald evidently defends the thesis that effectiveness in expression rests irrevocably upon inventive, orderly, fluent, and correct thinking.

II. BOOKS ON MODERN POETRY

Distinctly encouraging for those who believe that English literature should be taught as a living reality is the constantly increasing number of books on modern authors. Of one of these books, *New Voices*,³ the author says: "A book for everybody who wishes to know what the poets of today are thinking and feeling, how they are saying what they think and feel, and why they

¹ EMMA MILLER BOLENIUS, *Teachers' Manual of Silent and Oral Reading*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 229.

² JAMES C. FERNALD, *Expressive English*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1919. Pp. 463.

³ MARGUERITE WILKINSON, *New Voices*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919.

say it in the way they do." This is a group of critical and friendly essays, perhaps more friendly than critical. Evidently the author agrees with Lemaitre that "discussion of one's contemporaries is not criticism but conversation," for she interprets her poets for the reader and then leaves the forming of a critical judgment to his own discretion. Miss Wilkinson stresses the point that to many of us a *particular kind of poetry means poetry*, and warns us to beware lest like "Poor Jim Jay (we) get stuck fast in yesterday." Under the two general divisions, "The Technique of Contemporary Poetry," and "The Spirit of Contemporary Poetry," she discusses the chief poets of our day, illustrating her points by two hundred poems which have been published since 1900. To the teacher of poetry the book furnishes a form by which present-day poems may be measured and a key to the interpretation of modern tendencies in verse.

New books, by a new firm, for a new emphasis in English classrooms, are the two companion textbooks, *Modern American Poetry*, and *Modern British Poetry*,¹ of which Louis Untermeyer is editor. The anthologies are certainly companion books in that they present well-selected illustrations of the modern poetry of the common language on the two sides of the Atlantic from 1870 to 1920. Both are small anthologies, suitable in form and content for senior high-school classes. The poems in *Modern American Poetry*, several hundred of them, are chosen from "America's poetic renaissance," most of them by poets still living. Many are short, vigorous, manly poems, ranging from "When the Frost Is on the Pumpkin" to "I Have a Rendezvous with Death." They are well selected to illustrate the editor's thesis that present-day poetry "delights in searching for stronger beauty and in portraying rugged realities." Modern poetry differs from older poetry in that it chooses familiar subjects; it uses simple, unstilted language, avoiding ornate phrasing, and it discards intricate versification for lines which reflect and suggest the tones of ordinary conversation. There is not a poem in the first book the theme of which is objectionable for high-school classes.

In his admirable introductory essay of *Modern British Poetry* Mr. Untermeyer says:

Broadly speaking, modern American verse is short, vigorously experimental, full of youth and its occasional and natural crudities. English verse is smoother, more matured, and, moulded by centuries of literature, richer in associations and surer in artistry. . . . The American output is often rude, extremely varied and uncoordinated (being the expression of partly indigenous, partly naturalized, and largely unassimilated ideas, emotions and races); the English product is formulated, precise, and, in spite of its fluctuations, true to its past.

What better project, say for one month, than for a high-school senior class to delve into these and other comparisons? There are two poems in the

¹ LOUIS UNTERMAYER (Editor), *Modern American Poetry*, 1919, pp. 170, and *Modern British Poetry*, 1920, pp. 233. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Howe.

second book which the present writer wishes had been omitted for high-school classes.

III. JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL BOOKS

That the junior high school is coming to be a recognized institution is evidenced by the fact that many textbooks are appearing designed, and frequently named, for the new school. Three composition books from the pens of writers who have already prepared successful senior high-school texts have appeared in 1920. The first, *Elementary Lessons in Everyday English*,¹ is, like the text of similar name for senior high schools, an exasperating book. Miss Bolenius is incomparably rich in ideas, fertile in suggestions, inexhaustible in devices; not an English textbook-maker in the field approaches her in the respects named. On the other hand, her late book, like her earlier, gives the impression of a hodge-podge, little portions or pieces of language work, all of them well enough in themselves, dumped together in a big container and shaken up.

This impression, it is fair to say, is not wholly justified; there is a sort of sequence of various parts. For example, the book is intended to cover three years' work, one guesses the middle grades, though the author does not say so. The first year covers Part I, called "Getting Ideas"; second year, "Giving Ideas"; third year, "The Art of Speaking and Writing Well." That sort of a partition is exactly no partition at all. The various parts are treated as if they all cover the same ground; and they do! The crazy-quilt style of organization is the inevitable result.

The book is unique in that it is composed of sixty projects in oral and written composition—twenty to the year—each providing *pupil initiative* in purposeful activity. This element alone ought to place the book on the desk of every teacher of seventh- and eighth-grade English. The socialized recitation, supervised class activities, the emphasizing of social interests, and Americanization spirit—these and many other commendable features delight an English teacher. The reader is struck by the fact that Part III seems just as elementary as Part II, and both as elementary as Part I. There is no apparent progressive *difficulty* of succeeding divisions. In short, the book is a brilliant but hectic pioneer in project teaching.

When Alfred M. Hitchcock publishes a new textbook in English we may be certain that the teaching of that subject will be profoundly influenced in a very large number of schools. His latest, called *Junior English Book*,² adapts the general methods of his older practice books to the needs of younger students. Practice exercises abound in composition, both oral and written, and in word and sentence drills. Each of the ten chapters in Part I, or "courses,"

¹EMMA MILLER BOLENIUS, *Elementary Lessons in Everyday English*. New York: American Book Co., 1920. Pp. 340.

²ALFRED M. HITCHCOCK, *Junior English Book*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. 442.

as the text calls them, is divided into "Composition" and "Drill Exercises." Part II, "Grammar with Attention Directed to Common Errors," treats in successive chapters "Parts of Speech," "The Sentence," "Nouns," "Pronouns," etc. As the author says in his Preface, he "advances no new theory of instruction." Hitchcock solves the difficulty of correlating composition and language work by separating them. The danger is that with the *Junior English Book* as a textbook unskilful teachers may teach composition exclusively in the eighth grade and grammar in the ninth grade.

Essentials of English,¹ intended for use in the seventh and eighth grades, is by no means merely a revision of the second book of the same authors' earlier series, *Essentials of English*. Apparently the writers have set themselves the task of preparing a junior high-school English text. The earlier production laid emphasis on grammar with composition incidental; the later book exactly reverses this emphasis. The class using this text will be confronted in various chapters with "How to Tell a Story," "How to Write in Good Form," "How to Write Letters," "How to Express Thoughts Accurately," "Some Everyday Uses of the Mother-Tongue," and the like. Functional grammar is taught inductively throughout the text. There is considerable discursive material in the text itself, in which the authors discourse with the learner. This is a laboratory book designed for a composition workshop. Indeed, the changes made by Pearson and Kirchwey in their two texts for the seventh and eighth grades are representative of changes by which junior high-school English is to make over the old elementary-school procedure of the same grades.

Of a different order is the final book in the present classification, *Atlantic Prose and Poetry*.² It consists of sixty charming selections from the sixty-two volumes of the *Atlantic Monthly*, selections chosen for children of upper grammar grades and junior high schools. They range from a story of "The Airman's Escape," by an aviator of 1918, to "Old Times on the Mississippi," by Mark Twain—delightful reading for old folk and for young. One wishes that the editors had given volume and page references to the bound volumes of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Children might be led to search old volumes for the originals. Of course, such researches may be made, but with somewhat greater difficulty, through indexes of authors' names. Fifteen pictures break the monotony of closely printed pages. The editors assert that they have "endeavored to assemble an attractive library volume . . . of compelling interest . . . to this younger groups of pupils." They have succeeded.

IV. SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

A legitimate excuse for writing another textbook in English composition is the conviction on the part of the author that he has a real contribution to

¹ HENRY CARR PEARSON and MARY F. KIRCHWEY, *Essentials of English, Higher Grades*. New York: American Book Co., 1920. Pp. 469.

² CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS and W. D. PAUL (Editors), *Atlantic Prose and Poetry*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1919. Pp. 387.

make. Either he must have new materials or he must have fresh and vigorous methods of treating traditional materials. He should, indeed, have both. Judged by this standard, Robert M. Gay's *Writing through Reading*¹ may be called a new-fashioned way of presenting old-fashioned materials. In his Preface, Professor Gay states his thesis: "The old-fashioned exercises in reproduction certainly do supply the needed compulsion [compulsion for students to improve their English] for they permit no approximations, no vague thinking, no loose diction. . . . All chapters really deal with the same subject—the retelling of another person's thought."

Perhaps it is fair to say that the citation just given presents one-half of the author's theory of writing, namely, laboratory composition exercises in reproduction predominating, not more than one-third, at most one-half, of which should be original. The rest should be definite intensive problems in expression in which the student's incentive is emulation, and the product is of a sort that he, the writer himself, can form a fair estimate of his success.

The other half of Professor Gay's theory is that *reading* and *thinking* are the routes through which virility in expression is to be reached—the only routes. This book, then, couples training in *reading* with training in *writing* and looks upon both as processes in effective thinking. Important chapters with abundant exercises are: "Translation," "Paraphrasing," "The Abstract and Other Forms of Condensation," "Imitation and Emulation." Beyond all question *Writing through Reading* is the type of textbook which eleventh- and twelfth-grade classes in composition ought to be able to follow with great profit.

*Sentences and Thinking*² is a practice book in sentence making, designed for the first term of junior-college English. It is quite suitable for vigorous language review work in the last high-school year. The authors have sought absolute essentials. Moreover, their exceedingly sensible approach asks students to think out the reasons that lie behind grammatical and rhetorical rules. The heart of the book, in chapter ii, is a study of the principles of subordination, parallelism, emphasis, economy—all of which demand the prerequisite of clear thinking.

C. H. Ward, the well-known author of *What Is English* and *Sentence and Theme*, has this year produced a tenth-grade textbook called *Theme Building*.³ The book is thoroughly sound: Part I, "Planning the Composition"; Part II, "The Paragraph"; Part III, "Sentences"; Part IV, "Words"; Part V, "Details of the Whole Composition"; Part VI, "Themes for Criticism"—twenty-five chapters in all, arranged logically by beginning with the study of the whole, and proceeding to the study of subdivisions and finally smaller elements,

¹ ROBERT M. GAY, *Writing through Reading*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1920. Pp. 109.

² NORMAN FOERSTER and J. M. STEADMAN, JR., *Sentences and Thinking*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 121.

³ C. H. WARD, *Theme Building*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1920. Pp. 562.

sustained writing and speaking. The book is sound also in that it teaches rhetorical principles by elaborate *inductive* study of examples and by abundant practice in writing. The book is sound in the third place because it systematically and uniformly emphasizes in every chapter the organization of the thought, the structure of the theme, as the rhetorical matter of supreme importance. Not the least important part of the text is an extensive appendix, to be used for purposes of review with deficient tenth-graders. Letter forms, spelling, grammar, and punctuation are furnished for such review in a small reference work compactly stated. The entire book is well adapted for laboratory procedure in sophomore classes studying composition.

Theme Building emphasizes written composition; does not pay much attention to oral composition; has very definite assignments; presents an abundance of illustrative material; makes possibly too much criticism, and has some selections that are not very attractive reading. It is, withal, a very distinct contribution as a useful and usable textbook.

"Muddled English on top of muddled ideas makes a bad mess of business letters." This sentence from the Preface of *The English of Commerce*¹ is part of an introductory letter written by Frank A. Vanderlip concerning the entire book. Opdycke makes the business letter his primary objective, to be sure, but he prefaces the central chapter by three chapters on "The Business Word," "The Business Sentence," and "The Business Paragraph," all treated most thoroughly, with abundant illustrations. One can readily assert that the grammatical and rhetorical principles here inductively approached are the bed rock drill material suitable for high schools of commerce. Following the chapter on "The Business Letter" are others on "Advertising," "The Business Talk," and "Sales," appropriate for a second year's work in commercial English. The book closes with three reference chapters on "Abbreviations and Special Terms," "Business Reports," and "Business Forms." *The English of Commerce*, both in content and in thoroughness of treatment, is one of the best, if not the very best, textbooks in its field.

The author has tried to make the next book "merely an introduction to the study of English, particularly suitable for the early years of the high school." *The Study of English*² is divided into thirty chapters, one for each school week; each chapter is definitely marked off into separate lessons; each lesson is intended to be short enough to allow outside reading. This last-named item in the author's plan is unique and highly commendable. Mr. Crawford follows an all too common practice nowadays of combining very many, too many, lines of activity within the covers of the same book. Grammar, principles of composition, penmanship, speaking and reading aloud, themes, oral and written, and many other topics appear; the last few chapters develop the

¹ JOHN B. OPDYCKE, *The English of Commerce*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. 435.

² DOUGLAS GORDON CRAWFORD, *The Study of English*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. 338.

four forms of discourse. One pleasing innovation is the presence of memory gems at the close of chapters. The present writer protests that "Crossing the Bar" is not appropriate for thirteen-year-olds; but fairness compels the statement that the selection in question is the exception, not the rule. One may commend the extended use of dictation exercises without relying upon Mr. Crawford's analogy drawn from Brown's *How the French Boy Learns to Write*. The analogy, teach American boys English as the French teach boys their vernacular, is at best questionable logic. *The Study of English* is a good text, beautifully printed and bound, and featured by attractive pictures. On the whole, its outstanding feature as compared with similar texts lately offered is insistence upon grammatical relations and rhetorical principles as the core of a language course.

In the Preface of his *Laboratory Manual*¹ Stanley R. Oldham urges, "Let the English classroom become a laboratory for experiment and practice, with teacher and pupils working together in the exercises." His book is planned distinctly as a laboratory guide; its central contributing method appears to be this: high-school pupils are presented topics in composition; they are given abundant references for reading in books dealing with composition and rhetoric. Pupils, then, assigned topics in keeping with their individual needs, make their researches and prepare their writing or speaking. The idea is excellent; the field of composition is well staked out; literally thousands of topics are properly correlated and grouped. The *Manual* may be used alone, or it may be used in conjunction with any one of the standard composition textbooks.

Stratton's *Public Speaking*² is a textbook apparently intended for advanced high-school classes in oral English; it is suited also for college and normal-school classes of the junior-college level. Mr. Stratton guides his students in both the preparation and the presentation of their speeches. There is nothing particularly new either in materials or in methods suggested. The chief value of the book is its excellent organization of the large variety of activities which make up a worthy course in public speaking. A perusal of this latest textbook lends support to the contention that teachers of oral English have constantly made, namely, that *rhetoric* had its beginnings in the teaching of the spoken word, and that today one of the most effective means of acquainting young people with rhetorical principles is through the study of spoken discourse. Those skeptics who are inclined to look upon oral composition as a more or less petty training in vocalization should examine the substantial materials of sound thinking excellently set forth in Mr. Stratton's book.

¹ STANLEY R. OLDHAM, *Laboratory Manual of English Composition*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1920. Pp. 148.

² CLARENCE C. STRATTON, *Public Speaking*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. 342. \$1.48.

V. MISCELLANEOUS

The Ronald Press has added to its list two attractive and useful companion volumes under the general title *Language for Men of Affairs*, with the subtitles, *Talking Business* and *Business Writing*.¹ The books are intended primarily for business men, endeavoring to guide them, sensibly and without overdue emphasis upon technicalities, into a command of oral and written communication. For this task the authors are well fitted. Mr. Clapp and Mr. Lee are leaders in the departments of journalism of New York University and of Columbia University, respectively; both authors include chapters contributed by various well-known authorities.

Talking Business does not confine itself to the technique of talking; it fully considers other less obvious but equally important matters. The great outstanding problem is how to produce the right reaction in the mind of the listener. *Business Writing* aids in preparing effective letters, reports, sales literature, and special articles of all kinds.

Although intended for business men, these two useful works are crammed full of chapters which no teacher of practical English writing and speaking can do without. They should be upon the reference shelves of every high-school and college library; indeed, for advanced classes in business communication they would serve admirably as textbooks. For example, the chapters on "How to Read" in the one book and "Testing Your Thought" in the other are admirable discussions of the latest word for English teachers: teach reading as a *creative* process; teach both writing and speaking as *weighing, judging, evaluating* processes.

A very attractive book, *Americans by Adoption*,² presents brief biographical sketches of Agassiz, Girard, Ericson, Carl Schurz, Theodore Thomas, Carnegie, J. J. Hill, Saint-Gaudens, and Riis, nine men of foreign birth whose lives became the symbols of the best American citizenship. Because of its rich content of sound Americanism, the book is highly appropriate as a high-school reader or reference book. It might well be found on the laboratory shelves of English and of social-science classrooms. The Preface consists of a short statement by William Allan Neilson of Smith College.

*The Desk Standard Dictionary*³ is a book of convenient size, $8\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, bound in half-leather, very clearly printed, of moderate weight. The book gives 83,000 words, and contains recent words like "Argonne," "Belleau," "soviet," and "blimp." The dictionary has received the following commendation from Professor Brander Matthews of Columbia: "excellent in its

¹ JOHN M. CLAPP, *Talking Business*, pp. 526. JAMES MELVIN LEE, *Business Writing*, pp. 611. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1920.

² JOSEPH HUSBAND, *Americans by Adoption*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1920. Pp. 153.

³ *The Desk Standard Dictionary*. Augmented and revised by Frank H. Vizetelly. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1919. Pp. 893.

arrangement, in its mechanical devices, in its recognition of simplified spelling, and in its admirable adaptation for daily use." It should be remarked that the dictionary follows in spelling "the usage of the best modern authorities."

The romance of *Typee*,¹ supposed to be true, certainly is much more accurate than most historical novels of sailors among natives of the South Seas. The tale is crammed full of folk ways; it is written in the clear, vigorous, and perfectly spontaneous style of a born-story-teller. Some of the sociological material, polyandry, for example, told in the form of narrative, very decidedly should be reserved for advanced classes in sociology.

The title chosen by Professor Erskine for his book *Democracy and Ideals*² is the theme of the first six essays on democratic ideals, social relationships, and education which comprise the book. Style and quality of the essays may be indicated by this excerpt:

To be good neighbors and to study life together! This seemed to be for a moment at least the genuine ideal of the two million American citizens who made up our armies abroad. They spoke in many languages, but they were learning to speak and to understand each other in one. They were of all origins but they were feeling for a common future. On the soil of France the German blows were forging an American Nation. Or so it seemed, at least. If the appearance should in the end prove an illusion, the war would indeed be for us, not a crusade ending in a spiritual rescue, but only a slaughter that filled the world's graveyards.

Along with the classic essays of the traditional courses in English may well be placed this timely, wholesome, and thoroughly sympathetic interpretation of democratic responsibilities and ideals.

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Teaching subnormal children.—A recent contribution³ to the educational psychology of mentally deficient children is of interest alike to the student of abnormal psychology and to the teacher or administrative officer concerned with the problem of training such defectives. Considering primarily the instructional aspect of the problem of subnormality, the writer bases her observations upon the results of psychological research and endeavors to define the possible outcomes of such instruction in terms of these data. In the first four chapters there is a general discussion of variability in mental capacity, the social aspects of subnormality, methods of classification and identification. Chapters v to ix, inclusive, treat of the nature of the defective with respect to the process and the limits of development, variability in the

¹ STERLING A. LEONARD (Editor), *Typee, A Romance of the South Seas*, by Herman Melville. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920. Pp. 359.

² JOHN ERSKINE, *Democracy and Ideals*. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1920. Pp. 152.

³ LETA S. HOLLINGWORTH, *The Psychology of Subnormal Children*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xix+288.

degree of feebleness of different capacities of the individual, physical traits, the instincts, and emotions. The nature and possibilities of educational training for defectives are discussed in the remaining chapters under the following headings: "How Do the Mentally Defective Learn?" "Can the Mentally Deficient Be Made Normal by Any System of Education?" "The Causes and the Prevention of Mental Deficiency," "Secondary Cases," "Nervous and Mental Disorders which May Complicate Mental Deficiency," "Special Classes and Special Schools."

Chapter x, "How Do the Mentally Defective Learn?" will prove most directly helpful and suggestive to those interested in the training of defectives from either the scientific or the practical standpoint. Addressed as it is to the teachers of subnormal children, the book might well have contained some more specific consideration of the problem of curricula adapted to the class of pupils with which they have to deal.

Imagination and its place in education.—In keeping with the most recent aim and interest of educational psychology, this new book¹ seeks both to describe the part the imaginative processes play in the common experiences and the normal development of the child and to show the peculiar relation of this intellectual process to his interest and achievement in the different school subjects. The book is divided into three parts. In Part I, "Imagination and Related Activities," the author defines the imagination and explains its relation to the other mental processes. The discussion is pleasingly enriched and clarified by suggestive exercises and concrete illustrations from the imaginative experiences of different individuals in various situations of both adult and child life.

Part II, "The Imaginative Life of Children," includes six chapters describing the content and conduct of the imagination at different stages in the child's development, variations in the vividness, quality and tendencies of the imaginative processes in different individuals, its stimulating influence to good or evil habits of thought and action. Particularly clear and suggestive is the chapter entitled "The Period of Imaginative Play," in which is presented a number of examples of the use the child makes of the imaginary situations and characters which he invents in providing for the demands of his normal play life, incidentally acquiring thereby a richer content for his mental and social experience and a useful facility in the control of the imaginative process in its creative aspect.

Part III, under the heading "School Subjects and the Imagination," begins with a consideration of the possibilities of training the imagination from the point of view of disciplining, stimulating, and directing the imaginative processes, including a brief description of the mental conditions facilitating

¹ EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK, *Imagination and Its Place in Education*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1920. Pp. x+214. \$1.48.

such training. Here the discussion is somewhat more general and lacks the support of concrete examples which contribute so materially to the interest and clarity of the preceding chapters. Then follow chapters explaining the imaginative processes involved in learning to read, spell, and draw, in the study of arithmetic, geography, history, and literature, nature-study, and science. Especially interesting is the discussion of "Imagination in History and Literature." Both teachers and parents will find this chapter rich in suggestion as to ways of drawing upon the imagination for both motive and method in influencing the child's interests and directing his study along these lines.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- HANUS, PAUL H. *School Administration and School Reports*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. Pp. xi+200. \$1.75.
- HENDY, F. J. R. *The Universities and the Training of Teachers*. Oxford, England: Clarendon Press, 1920. Pp. 28.
- HILL, DAVID SPENCE. *Introduction to Vocational Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xvii+483.
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- RAPEER, L. W. *The Consolidated Rural School*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. xiii+545.
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- SIMS, NEWELL LEROY. *The Rural Community: Ancient and Modern*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. xxiii+916.
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- WOOLBERT, CHARLES HENRY. *The Fundamentals of Speech*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1920. Pp. 385. \$2.25.
- WRAY, W. J., and FERGUSON, R. W. *A Day Continuation School at Work*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. Pp. xii+212.

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- CARDON, LEOPOLD. *L'Oncle Sam en France*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. viii+208.
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- PLACE, PERLEY OAKLAND. *Beginning Latin*. New York: American Book Co., 1919. Pp. xviii+398. \$1.36.
- SMITH, HUGH A., and GREENLEAF, JEANNE H. *A French Reader*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920. Pp. lx+267. \$1.20.
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- TORMEY, JOHN L., and LAWRY, ROLLA C. *Animal Husbandry*. New York: American Book Co., 1920. Pp. 351. \$1.40.
- VIVIAN, ALFRED. *Everyday Chemistry*. New York: American Book Co., 1920. Pp. 560. \$1.64.
- WASHBURN, CARLETON W. *Common Science*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1920. Pp. xv+390. \$1.60.
- WILKINS, ERNEST HATCH. *First Italian Book*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1920. Pp. xiv+164.
- WILLARD, FLORENCE, and GILLET, LUCY H. *Dietetics for High Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. xx+201.

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